



GEORGE V.

Royal England Readers.

THE EMPIRE

A COMPLETE HISTORY FROM ROMAN TIMES
TO THE PRESENT DAY.



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THE EMPIRE.

1. HOW THE BRITISH EMPIRE GREW.*

1. **Early Britons.**—British history goes back nearly two thousand years. It begins by describing the island of Britain as a home of half-savage races, who were little known beyond the narrow seas that kept them apart from the people of other lands.

2. **Coming of the Romans:** 55 B.C. and 43 A.D.—The Romans came and conquered part of Britain, and ruled over it for nearly four hundred years. They taught the people how to make better food, better clothes, and better houses. They built roads, and bridges, and towns, and made the land more comfortable to live in.

3. **Coming of the English:** 449 A.D.—After the Romans had gone away, English tribes came from the other side of the North Sea and conquered the country. They drove the Britons into Wales and Cornwall, and settled in the land. They formed a number of small separate kingdoms; but at last all were united, and the country began to be called by the proud name of England—the land of the English.

* Lesson 1 contains references to events in the later periods of British history. It may therefore be reviewed with advantage after the student has read through the book.

4. Coming of the Danes: 787.—After a time another people, called the Danes, crossed the North Sea and fought with the English for the possession of the land. For a time they were masters of England, and Danish kings sat on the English throne. At last the English and the Danes, who were really of the same race, became friendly, and settled side by side, and grew into one people.

5. Coming of the Normans: 1066.—Next the Normans came from Normandy in the north of France. Their leader, William, Duke of Normandy, became William the Conqueror, King of England. The Normans who settled in England by-and-by mixed with the English, and all became one people.

6. Conquest of Ireland: 1172.—For many years after the Norman conquest England, Wales, Scotland, and Ireland were independent of one another, and had each its own rulers. Henry the Second invaded Ireland, and called his son John the "Lord of Ireland." Henry the Eighth was the first English King who took the title of King of Ireland.

7. Conquest of Wales: 1282.—Many of the English kings tried to conquer Wales; but in their mountain fastnesses the Welsh kept their freedom till Edward the First invaded the land. Then they were defeated, their Prince was slain, and his title, "Prince of Wales," given to Edward's eldest son.

8. Union with Scotland: 1603.—The Kings of England tried in vain to conquer Scotland. At length the union of the two countries came about in a more peaceful manner. James the Fourth of



Scotland married the daughter of Henry the Seventh in 1502. One hundred and one years afterwards, when Henry's son, Henry the Eighth, and his children, Edward, Mary, and Elizabeth, were dead, Henry the Seventh's great-great-grandchild in Scotland—James the Sixth—became King of both countries. He was the first King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

9. **George V., King and Emperor.**—George V.



is the ruler of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. That is to say, the British Islands form one kingdom under one sovereign. But they are only a small part of the British Empire, which is seventy times as large as the British Islands. Our King rules over one-sixth of all the land of the globe. He is the King of England and Wales, of Scotland of Ireland, of Canada in North America, of Cape Colony and other parts of Africa,



of Australia, and of New Zealand. He is also the Emperor of India.

10. Conquest of India: 1757.—In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, a company of merchants called the English East India Company was formed to trade with the people of India. When George the Second was King, war broke out in that country, first between the British traders and the French traders, then between the British and the natives. A great vic-

tory was gained at the battle of Plassey, in Bengal, 1757. This made us masters of India. It remained for many years under the rule of the East India Company; but after the great Indian Mutiny in 1857 that Company was brought to an end, and the country was placed under the direct control of the British sovereign. In 1876 Queen Victoria was declared to be "Empress of India."

11. Conquest of Canada: 1759.—In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, English people settled on the shores of North America. From time to time these colonies grew, until in George the Second's reign there were thirteen States. The French had also founded colonies in Canada. A quarrel broke out between the British and French colonists. In 1759 the French were defeated by General Wolfe, who took Quebec from them, and all Canada passed into the hands of the British. In the reign of George the Third, the American colonists quarrelled with the British Government. War followed, and in the end the thirteen States were formed into a separate country, called the United States of America; but Canada remained a part of the British Empire.

12. Colonies in Australasia: 1788.—In the reign of George the Third, Captain Cook, a famous English sailor, landed on a small island on the north of Australia, and took possession of it in the name of the British King. In 1788 the British flag was hoisted on the shores of Sydney, now the capital of New South Wales. Till 1868 several places in Australia were used as jails or penal settlements, to which prisoners were sent from this country. New

Zealand came under British rule in 1840, when a treaty was made with the native chiefs. Before that date, however, whaling and trading ports and missionary stations had long existed on its shores. Britain now owns part of the large island of New Guinea, to the north of the Australian Continent.

13. **Colonies in Africa.**—Our colonies in Southern and Western Africa have been settled at various times. The chief of them is Cape of Good Hope, which is three times the size of Great Britain. It has been part of the British Empire since 1815.

14. **British History.**—British history shows us, first, how the different countries in the British Islands became one kingdom under one sovereign. Then we see how, little by little, the British Empire grew larger and more powerful, until it has become the largest and most powerful State the world has ever seen.

15. One thing more we must not forget to notice as we read our history. For hundreds of years our monarchs ruled just as they pleased, and kept most of the power in their own hands. Some of them were able rulers, and they did what they could to improve the condition of their people. Others abused their power, and sought only to minister to their own pleasures. As education spread among the people they began to take part in the government of the country. They elected a Parliament to help the sovereigns to rule, and forced them to do so according to law.

2. EARLY BRITONS.

1. **Long Ago.**—There was a time when Britain was almost entirely covered with forests, through which wandered tribes of people called Britons. They came into the country at different times, and from different parts of the world. How or when they came we do not know.

2. **British Remains.**—The ancient Britons could not write, and so leave an account of themselves for us to read; but they have left traces from which we may learn something of their manner of life. By digging into their graves and ruined dwellings, we find many things which they used, such as pottery, beads, rings, tools, and arrow-heads.

3. In some places we see great stones placed together like the framework of a door. For a long time no one knew what these stones meant; but now we know that they formed the sides and roof of a grave. These graves had been once covered with earth, which has since been washed away, leaving the stones standing as we now see them. We also find large circles of tall stones, which seem to have been used as temples. The largest circle of this kind is at Stonehenge, on Salisbury Plain in Wiltshire.

4. **Traders in Britain.**—The island of Britain was known to the people of other countries some time before the birth of Christ. About the year 300 B.C. a certain Greek writer speaks of the country as then known, calling it Albion, or the "Land of the White Cliffs." It was visited by traders, who



STONE-CIRCLES AT STONEHENGE.

obtained from the natives tin, lead, skins, and other things, for which they gave them in return salt, earthenware, and cloth. Tin was mixed with copper to form bronze, an article much used among the nations of the East.

5. **The Britons.**—When the Britons were first known to the people of other lands, their mode of living was rude and wild. In the middle of the country the tribes were shepherds and herdsmen, who wandered from place to place to find pasture for their flocks and herds. They gave little attention to the cultivation of the soil, and lived mostly upon wild fruits and the flesh of the animals they reared. Their dwellings, made of timber wicker-work, and thatch, were round in form, like a sugar-loaf. They were built in groups, and were surrounded by a strong paling or fence made of the trees which had been cut down to clear a place for them in the forests.



ANCIENT BRITONS HUNTING.

6. Near the sea-coast the natives seem to have been more civilized. Instead of the rude clothing of those dwelling inland, they made a kind of coarse woollen cloth, and wore coats and trousers. Among

they were skilful workers in gold, of which metal they made necklaces and bracelets. They also built better houses, and had fixed places of abode. Herds of cattle roamed through the forests and pasture-land ; and horses were raised in great numbers, and trained for use both in peace and war.

7. Though the Britons all spoke one language, they were divided into many small tribes, each with its own king or chief. These tribes were often at war with each other, in which they showed much bravery and skill. They used wicker shields, with swords and spears of iron and bronze. They had war chariots, with scythes fixed to the axles, and drawn by well-trained horses.

8. **The Druids.**—The early Britons had some idea of an over-ruling Power, and a life beyond the grave ; but their religion, called Druidism, was a cruel one. It entered into everything that they did, and had much to do in the forming of their character and laws. The Druids were not only the priests, but also the judges and the teachers of the people. They had great power, and they punished severely any one who would not submit to them.

9. The Druids worshipped the sun, moon, and stars, and many other objects, as gods. On great occasions they offered human sacrifices, usually prisoners taken in war and criminals, putting their victims into wicker cages, and setting them on fire. Their dwellings were in forests of oak ; and this tree, with the mistletoe which grew upon its branches, was held very sacred.

3. THE COMING OF THE ROMANS.

55 B.C.

1. Julius Cæsar: 55 B.C.—Until fifty-five years before the birth of Christ, the people of other lands did not know much about our island. In that year a great Roman general, named Julius Cæsar, who had conquered Gaul or France, thought that he would come and make Britain a part of the Roman Empire. The Romans were at that time the greatest people in the world. They were fond of fighting and conquering, and when they heard of a new country they tried to make it their own.

2. Cæsar's First Visit.—Julius Cæsar had heard about Britain from the merchants of Gaul, and had seen its white cliffs across the Strait of Dover. Then he had been told that in all his wars with the Gauls they had been helped by the Britons. From his own account we learn his purpose in making his first visit. He says, speaking of himself in the third person—

"Though the time of the year would not permit him to finish the war, yet he thought it would be worth his while to go thither only to view the island, to learn the nature of the inhabitants, to be acquainted with their coasts, their ports, and creeks, to which the Gauls were almost strangers; for they were seldom visited by any but merchants, who were unacquainted with all the country, except the coasts, and those parts which were opposite to the Gauls. Accordingly, having summoned a council of merchants from all parts, he could neither be in-



JULIUS CESAR.

formed of the extent of the island, what nation, and how powerful the inhabitants were; how well they understood the art of war, what customs they were governed by, nor how considerable a navy their ports were capable of receiving."

3. So in the summer of 55 B.C., with eighty ships and ten thousand men, he sailed for Britain. As the ships drew near the land, the Romans saw the shores of Kent lined with men ready to fight. After a severe struggle, the Romans drove back the Britons



THE LANDING OF THE ROMANS.

and made good their footing on the island not far from Dover.

4. A Treaty of Peace.—A treaty of peace was made, but was soon broken by the natives when they saw that a violent storm had destroyed many of the ships in which Cæsar and his army had come. After one or two more battles, the Britons were again defeated, and both parties gladly made another treaty of peace and friendship. Cæsar then repaired a few of his broken ships, and with

his army returned to Gaul, from which he had been absent only seventeen days.

5. Cæsar's Second Visit.—In the following year Cæsar returned with a much larger army. He was allowed to land without opposition, but after advancing into the country for some distance and routing the Britons, he had to return to the coast to repair his ships, which had again been destroyed by a storm. He then advanced once more against the Britons.

6. Cæsar's Writings.—The British tribes under Caswallon could not long withstand the attacks of the Romans. Only one great battle was fought, and then another treaty of peace was made. Cæsar made his way as far as St. Albans, but he cannot be called the conqueror of Britain. He only occupied a small part of the island for a short time. A Roman writer says, "He did not conquer Britain; he only showed it to the Romans." When he returned to Rome, the British captives, from their remarkable attire and peculiarity of manners, afforded matter of admiration to the people; and Cæsar offered a breast-plate trimmed with pearls, found in Britain, to Venus, as a trophy of the spoils of the ocean. He wrote an account of his visits, and from his books we learn nearly all that we know about the Britons of those early times.

4. THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN. (Part I.)

1. **The Conquest of Britain: 43 A.D.**—Nearly a hundred years passed away, during which Britain was left alone by the Romans. About 43 A.D. the Emperor Claudius sent an army under Plautius, who conquered a great part of the island. The Roman Emperor himself visited Britain, but the war continued for many years.

2. The conquest of Britain was no easy matter. Though the people of the island were divided into many tribes, often at war with one another, they all joined now as one nation against their common enemy. It was a long struggle. The Romans gained the south of the island, but did not hold it easily. Step by step, however, the Britons were hunted out of their forests and pasture-lands, and driven northwards and westwards.

3. **Caractacus: 50 A.D.**—After seven years of hard fighting, one of the bravest of their chiefs, Caractacus, or Caradoc, was taken prisoner and carried to Rome. The sight of the splendid city filled him with wonder; and when he came before the Emperor he could not help asking, “How is it that you can envy me my poor little cottage in Britain?” Claudio was so pleased with the noble bearing of his prisoner that he ordered the British chief’s chains to be taken off, and allowed him and his family to settle in a dwelling in Rome. ✓

4. **The End of the Druids: 61 A.D.**—Soon after the loss of Caractacus, a worse thing befell the Britons. The Roman general began to see that he



CARACTACUS BEFORE THE ROMAN EMPEROR.

could never complete the conquest of the country, and hold the people in subjection, while their priests remained to teach and encourage them, and he made up his mind to destroy the priests.

5. They had all gathered together in the island of Anglesey (Mona, the Romans called it), and thither he went with a large army. As the Roman soldiers crossed the narrow strait, they saw that the shores of the island were covered with people. There were soldiers drawn up in line of battle; old white-bearded Druids, chanting or shrieking curses upon the invaders; women running about, with their long hair streaming in the wind, and lighted

torches in their hands; further inland bonfires were blazing.

6. All this made the Roman soldiers hang back a little, but they soon gained courage to attack the almost defenceless people. What followed was a massacre rather than a fair fight. The Druids were put to death; the altars were destroyed; and the sacred groves were cut down.

7. With the Druids died all the learning, the laws, the poetry, the history, and even the religion of the ancient Britons. No part of these had ever been written down, and now there was no one living to teach what he knew to disciples and successors.

8. Boadicea: 61 A.D.—Just when the Romans thought that Britain was at last their own, they very nearly lost everything that they had gained. A British chief (of the Iceni, a people inhabiting that part of the country now called Norfolk and Suffolk), in order to secure one half of his property to his family at his death, left the other half to the Roman Emperor. The governor seized the whole, and when the chief's widow, Boadicea, protested, he ordered her to be whipped with rods. It was only natural that she should avenge herself. While Suetonius, the Roman governor, was absent with his troops at Mona, Boadicea called her people to arms; other tribes joined them; the revolt spread, and very soon the whole south country was in a state of rebellion.

9. Many Roman towns were taken; London was burned; and Romans everywhere—both soldiers and



BOADICEA ADDRESSING HER TROOPS

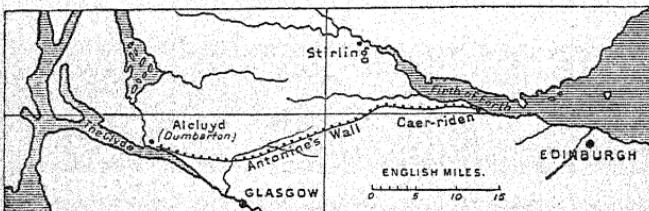
peaceful citizens—were put to death without mercy. Then the end came. Boadicea, with more than eighty thousand men at her back, met the Roman army fresh from the slaughter of the Druids. There was a great battle. The Britons were defeated, and Boadicea took poison rather than allow herself to fall into the hands of her enemies.

5. THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN. (Part II.)

1. **Julius Agricola: 78 A.D.**—Nearly forty years of warfare had followed the second invasion of the Romans, when Julius Agricola arrived in Britain. He was the wisest governor that Rome had yet sent.

2. Though kind and gentle, he was manly and brave, and put down all rebellion with a strong hand. He overcame the wild people in the west, and then marched north as far as the Grampian Mountains. There, in the Battle of Mons Grampius, he defeated the Caledonians.

3. **Agricola's Forts: 81 A.D.**—Agricola did not



think that it would be wise to try to keep the northern part of the island, so he fixed a boundary to show what was Roman ground. He drew a line across the island, from the Firth of Forth to the mouth of the river Clyde. Along this line he built strong forts, and filled them with Roman soldiers, to keep the wild northern tribes from coming into what was now a Roman province.

4. In those early days there was no division of the island into countries. Before the coming of the Romans, the wild native tribes roamed all over the island, and fought or made friends in any part of

it. Agricola's forts made the first division of the island into two countries; and the Romans spoke of the northern part as Caledonia, to distinguish it from the southern part, which they had conquered, and which they called Britannia.

5. **The Picts.**—The wild tribes who lived in the northern and eastern parts of Caledonia were called Picts, from the Latin word *picti*, meaning "painted people." Very little is known about this people, but they were, like the Britons of the south, of Celtic race. The name Briton really belongs, not only to the Britons of the south who became subject to the Romans, but to the Picts who held out against them.

6. **The Scots.**—A people called the Scots, also of Celtic race, were at this time beginning to come over from Ireland, and to settle on the west coast of North Britain. They were not a numerous people, but they had bold leaders among them, who not only were successful in battle, but were chiefs or kings in the land. The Scots became the ruling tribe in the north, and at length gave their name to the country north of Agricola's line of forts. Since then North Britain has been called Scotland, or the "Land of the Scots."

7. **Agricola's Good Government.**—Agricola made friends with many of the British chiefs, and persuaded them to live in the towns which the Romans had built, to dress like Romans, and to learn the Roman or Latin language. His ships also sailed round Britain, and proved it to be an island.

8. Agricola showed mercy to the people by

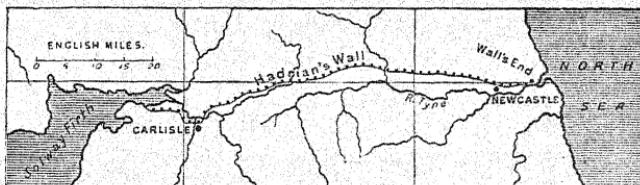
removing the unjust laws which former governors had made. This inclined them to trust him, and to do as he wished them. In the midst of his usefulness he was called back to Rome by the Emperor, who thought he was becoming too powerful.

9. **Agricola** was only a few years in Britain, but the people of the country had reason to be thankful to him for the good that he did. His daughter had married Tacitus, a great Roman writer, and it is from his books that we learn the story of what Agricola did in Britain.

10. **British Trade.**—Many governors followed Agricola, and kept the people in check. Britain became known as the “Granary of the North.” Before the Roman conquest, corn had been grown only in the southern parts of the country; but now, as the people became civilized, the ground everywhere was tilled. British dogs and British pearls became fashionable in Rome, and a great trade was done in tin, copper, iron, and lead.

6. THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN. (Part III.)

1. **Roman Walls.**—We have seen that Agricola’s chain of forts was the first dividing line between the north and the south countries. In the year 121 a stone wall was built across the island, from the mouth of the Tyne to the Solway Firth. This was called Hadrian’s Wall, because it was built in the reign of the Emperor Hadrian. Parts of it are still standing; and there is a place called Wallsend, close



to the river Tyne, where the old wall comes to an end. In the year 139, when Antonine was Emperor, Agricola's old forts were joined together by a long and strong mound, or rampart of earth. This is known as Antonine's Wall. In 208 Severus built a great wall of stone along the side of Hadrian's wall.

2. Roman Provinces.—During the Roman possession of Britain the country was differently governed at different periods, but at length it was divided into six districts or provinces. They were—

1. **Caledonia**, north of Antonine's Wall or Agricola's Forts.
2. **Valentia**, between that line and the wall of Hadrian and Severus; called Valentia in honour of the Emperor Valentinian.
3. **Maxima Cæsariensis**, between Hadrian's Wall and the Humber and Mersey.
4. **Flavia Cæsariensis**, between the Humber and Mersey and the Thames.
5. **Britannia Secunda**, west of the Dee and the Severn, including Wales.
6. **Britannia Prima**, south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel.

Only the last four provinces were completely reduced.

3. Roman Roads.—The Romans made roads to connect the large towns and sea-ports. Some of these roads were so good that parts of them have lasted until now. They called their roads *strata*, whence the English word *street*. There were four



chief Roman roads:—(1) *Watling Street*, from the coast of Kent to Caernarvon, through London; (2) *Rikenild Street*, from St. David's to Tynemouth, through Derby and York; (3) *Hermin Street*, from St. David's to Southampton; (4) *The Foss*, from Lincoln to Cornwall. These roads formed a network over the land, and made it easier for the Romans to march their soldiers from place to place.

4. **Roman Remains.**—Whatever the Romans did they did well. Some of their towers and gateways stand firm after fifteen centuries have passed away. In digging deep, men often come upon Roman baths, splendid pavements, fountains, pots full of coins, and other treasures. In London, York, Lincoln, Chester, and Bath, such things have been found. Twenty feet below the surface of the London of to-day lie the remains of the London of the Romans.

5. **Roman Words.**—But these are not the only traces of their presence in our island. Mixed with our English language there are many words which have come to us direct from the Latin. Names of places, too, tell us that they were built or founded by the Romans. London is only a short name for Londinium; and Lincoln was once Lindum Colonia, the seat of a colony of the Romans.

6. The Latin name for a camp was *castra*, and this word has been changed by us into *caster*, or *chester*. Where you find a town with such a word forming part of its name, you may be sure that in that very place the Romans were. If you look at your map, you will see Chester, Lancaster, Tadcaster, Manchester, and many more. Such words as *street* or *strat*, in names of places, show that here there was part of a Roman road. Stratford is one of these places; Chester-le-street is another.

7. **The Christian Religion.**—A great change was passing slowly and silently over the Roman Empire. Little by little the Christian religion drove out the old heathen religion, till at last very few believed in the old gods of Rome.

8. We do not know when or how the Britons became Christians; but it is supposed that some of the Romans who came to Britain brought with them a knowledge of Christ. The little church of St. Martin, at Canterbury, is the oldest Christian church in the kingdom. It was built when Romans and Britons lived there side by side.

9. At first no notice was taken of the new religion, but as it continued to spread it caused alarm. The Roman Emperor was the head of both Church and State, and as such he regarded the Christian, who put Christ first, as a traitor and rebel. Persecution extended to every part of the empire. The first British martyr was a man named Alban, who was beheaded at the Roman town of Verulam for being a Christian, and the place has since been called St. Albans in his honour.

10. **The Romans leave Britain: 410 A.D.**—Nothing would have made the Romans give up this fair island but the fear of losing Rome itself. They had been for many centuries the greatest people in the world, but they were now losing power. Strong northern nations were coming against them, and the Romans were not so strong nor so brave as they once had been. They found that all the troops they had were needed at home; and the soldiers in other lands were sent for, to guard the capital. The last of the Romans left Britain in 410 A.D.



7 THE COMING OF THE ENGLISH.

449 A.D.

1. **The Picts and Scots.**—No sooner had the Romans left Britain than the Picts and Scots broke through the unguarded Roman walls, and marched into the southern part of the island. The Britons of the south had lost much of their early warlike spirit, and were unable to drive back the invaders. The Britons sent more than once to the Romans for help against the northern tribes; but at last they were told that now they must defend themselves.

2. **Pirates of the North Sea.**—They had also other

enemies to deal with. While the Romans were in Britain, the east coast of the island had often been visited by pirates from the opposite shores of the North Sea. The Romans called these people Saxons, and they had an officer on the Kentish coast, with the title of "Count of the Saxon Shore," whose duty it was to prevent the pirates from landing in the country.

3. Hengest and Horsa.—These pirates now came back in larger numbers than ever, and the Britons in their difficulty asked them for help against their northern foes. It is said that the British King Vortigern, asked two brothers, Hengest and Horsa, to come to his aid. They defeated the Picts and Scots; and then, finding the country better than their own, they turned their arms against the British, and seized Kent.

4. Angle-Land, or England.—For some years after this, bands of Saxons, Jutes (people of Jutland, the northern part of Denmark), and Angles continued to arrive. These people, in the course of time, took possession of Britain, and drove back the inhabitants, who fled to the mountains of the west (Wales and Cornwall). "Some," says Gildas, an old British monk, "were caught in the hills and slaughtered ; others, worn out with hunger, gave themselves up to lifelong slavery. Some fled across the sea ; others trusted themselves to the clefts of the mountains, to the forests, and to the rocks along the coast." The Angles settled chiefly on the eastern coasts of Britain, from the Forth to the Thames. They may be called the northern English ; and the Saxons,



THE ENGLISH MIGRATIONS.

who settled chiefly in the south and middle parts, may be termed the southern English. From the Angles, as they were the chief tribe, comes the name England—that is, “Land of the English.”

5. King Arthur.—Many battles took place between the English and the Britons, and the land was the scene of bitter strife for more than one hundred and fifty years. King Arthur, a British chief, held the English in check for many years. The doings of this famous prince and his Knights of the Round Table have been told in poetry and story.

8. THE ENGLISH PEOPLE.

1. **The English.**—The history of the settlement of the English shows the slow and toilsome steps by which the sea-rovers gained a footing in Britain. They were a people of the greatest courage, and knew no defeat, and would own no master by sea or land.

2. They were of large size, of fair colour, with light hair and blue eyes. They lived wild lives, and were often given to rioting and disorder; but after a time they became more settled in their habits, and when they had become Christians there grew up amongst them a love of peace.

3. The King or chief was elected by the Witan, or council of wise men. The full name of this gathering was the *Witen-a-gemot*—that is, “of wise men—the meeting.” It included nobles, thanes, bishops, and abbots. The duty of the Witan was to assist the King in governing the country.

4. The people were divided into three classes. The highest class was the nobles of high birth, and the thanes, or large land-owners, who rendered services to the King. The second class was the free-men, called churls. They were chiefly farmers, who occupied the land, for which they paid rent. They were obliged to serve in the army in time of war.

5. The lowest class, the slaves, were the most numerous. They were chiefly prisoners taken from the old British tribes in war, while a few were people who had been sold into slavery because they could not pay their debts. They had to work very hard in the household and on the farm, and were not well treated.

They might, however, buy their freedom if they were able to do so.

6. The English tilled the soil, and raised cattle, sheep, swine, and fowls in abundance. There were also iron, gold, and silver-smiths, joiners, shoemakers, bakers, and cooks. The dwellings of the common people were rude huts, but the higher classes had more comfortable houses. They wore shoes, and clothes of linen and wool. Mead, ale, and sour milk were the common drinks. Silver coins made at this time are still preserved.

7. Religion of the English.—The religion of the English, when they came to Britain, partook of their own wild and fierce nature. Woden was the name of their chief god. He was thought to impart courage in war, and to give them victory. Thor, the thunderer, was the god of the sky and the air. Many other gods were also worshipped. The people believed in a life after death, and thought that those who fell in battle would enter heaven.

8. The Names of the Days of the Week.—In the common English names of the days of the week we find the names of the chief old English gods, to whose worship these days were set apart. The Sun and the Moon give us Sunday and Monday ; Tuis, Tuesday ; Wednesday and Thursday are named from Woden and Thor ; Friday from Freya, wife of Woden ; and Saetre, a sea-god, gives his name to Saturday.

9. Learning.—Learning received some attention from a few of the higher classes. Monasteries were established at Lindisfarne, or Holy Island, off the coast of Northumberland, Wearmouth, Whitby,

and Jarrow in the north, and at Peterborough and St. Albans in the east. These monasteries were centres of education and industry. The monks divided their day into three parts. One part was spent in labour, a second in religious worship, and a third in writing and teaching.

10. Gildas was a Briton who wrote history; Caedmon was an Anglo-Saxon poet; and the Venerable Bede, who was a monk and a great scholar, translated the Gospel of John into the English language. He also wrote in Latin a History of the English Church. He spent his whole life in the monastery of Jarrow, where he taught six hundred monks. He is regarded as "the father of English learning," for his constant pleasure lay in learning, teaching, and writing. He died in 735.

9. OLD ENGLISH KINGDOMS.

1. **Early Struggles of the English.**—As the English tribes came to Britain at different times and under different leaders, they formed not one but several states or kingdoms. These different states were constantly struggling with each other for the chief place. The King who was most powerful was called Bretwalda, or overlord. No one kingdom could keep the power for very long. The smaller kingdoms were gradually swallowed up in the larger ones. The chief struggle at different times lay between the kingdoms of Kent, Northumbria, Mercia, and Wessex.

2. **Seven Kingdoms.**—Seven of these small states



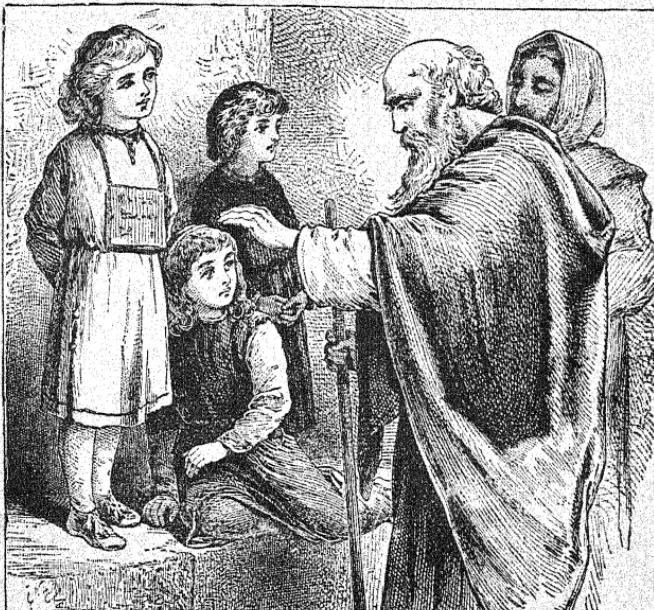
or kingdoms are known in history. Their names were—(1) Kent, the corner kingdom; (2) Sussex, the land of the South Saxons; (3) Essex, the land of the East Saxons; (4) Wessex, the land of the West Saxons; (5) East Anglia, the land of the Angles in

the east ; (6) *Northumbria*, the land north of the Humber ; (7) *Mercia*, the land in the centre that bordered on the other kingdoms.

3. **Kent.**—Kent was the oldest of the Old English kingdoms. It was founded by Hengest and Horsa, and the Jutes who fought under their leadership. For more than one hundred years Kent was one of the leading kingdoms. One of the kings of Kent, Ethelbert, married Bertha, a Christian lady, and a daughter of the King of Paris. It was into this kingdom that Augustine, a monk sent from Rome by Pope Gregory, brought the Christian religion in 597. Before this, monks from Iona, an island off the west coast of Scotland, had carried the gospel to the south of Scotland and the north of England.

4. **Gregory and the English Slaves.**—A story is told, that once, while passing through the market-place of Rome, a priest named Gregory saw some boys from Britain put up for sale. He noticed their fair faces and light hair, and asked, “Who are these?” “Angles,” said the slave merchants. “Not Angles, but angels they would be if they were Christians!” said he. And he formed a plan to send the gospel to Britain. When he became Pope, or Bishop of Rome, he carried out his purpose.

5. Ethelbert did not at first care for the new religion ; but a year afterwards he became a Christian, and his example was followed by the greater part of his people. Augustine was made Archbishop of Canterbury, the English capital of Kent, with the oversight of all the churches in Britain ; and that city is still the religious capital of England.



GREGORY AND THE ENGLISH SLAVE-BOYS.

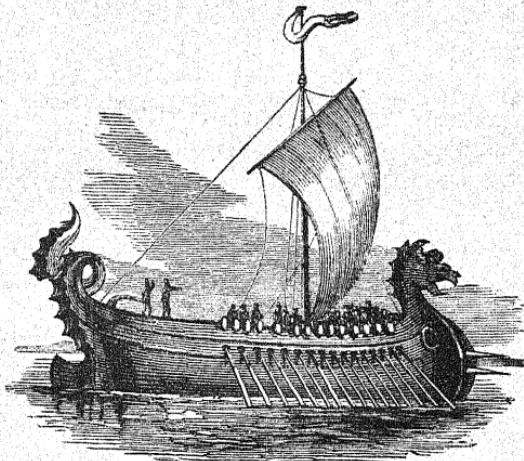
6. Northumbria.—North of the Humber, two states were united under the name of Northumbria. It was an important kingdom, and was at times at the head of the English kingdoms. Its greatest King was Edwin, who married the daughter of Ethelbert of Kent. He had greater power in Britain than any English King who had yet reigned. He did much for the good of his people, and built a church on the spot where York Minster now stands. Edwin is said to have built a stronghold on the rock where Edinburgh Castle now is; and from him the city took its name, Edwinesburgh, which was changed into Edinburgh.

7. **Mercia.**—Mercia did not rise into the first place until after the fall of Northumbria, and it was not till the year 758 that it became truly powerful. Then a King named Offa began to reign—a strong, wise, hard-working, thoughtful man. He began by subduing the Britons who lived on his borders. He did not wish to drive them out. They might live among his people, if they would live quietly. To keep back those who would not submit to his rule, he threw up a great mound one hundred miles long. It stretched from the mouth of the Wye to the mouth of the Dee. Remains of "Offa's Dyke," as it was called, may still be seen.

8. Offa made good laws for his people, and outside his own kingdom was respected and feared. He was the first English King who sent tribute-money to the Pope at Rome. It was called Peter's Pence, because it was paid each year on St. Peter's Day, the first of August.

9. **Wessex.**—Wessex, the land of the West Saxons, was founded by Cerdic, a brave Saxon chief, from whom our present royal family has descended. Egbert became King of Wessex in 802. He was a brave and careful man, and having obtained the goodwill of the people, he succeeded in uniting all the kingdoms into one in 827. He took the title of "King of the English."

10. He was not King in the same sense as William the Conqueror and those who came after him. Some of the English kingdoms still had their own kings, but they were subject to Egbert.



NORSE GALLEY.

10. OLD ENGLISH KINGS. (Part I.)

1. **The Danes : 787.**—Before Egbert became King of all England, the Danes, or Norsemen, had begun to invade the island. The swift ships of these bold sea-rovers, bearing the flag of the Black Raven, became the terror of every bay and river-mouth on the coast.

2. They came from the countries to the north of the early homes of the English, on the other side of the North Sea ; and their object was at first the same as that which had brought the English some four hundred years before—they wanted plunder. But they too began to settle, and to fight with the people for the land. Egbert fought many battles with the Danes, and though often defeated by them, he at last gained a great victory over them and the Welsh at Hengest's-down in Cornwall.

3. Ethelwulf and his Sons: 836.—Ethelwulf was the son of Egbert. He was succeeded by his four sons—Ethelbald, Ethelbert, Ethelred, and Alfred. During these four reigns the country continued to be in a constant state of alarm from the frequent attacks of the Danes, whose path was marked by burning, robbery, and murder.

4. Ethelwulf made a journey to Rome, and took with him his youngest son Alfred. On his way home he married Judith, the daughter of Charles the Bald of France. This lady afterwards became the wife of a Count of Flanders, and from her William the Conqueror was descended.

5. When Ethelred was King, the Danes took East Anglia, and made Edmund its King a prisoner. Because he refused to give up the Christian faith, he was bound to a tree, and shot to death with arrows. In later days a splendid abbey was built over his grave, and the town which grew up around it is still called Bury St. Edmunds, or St. Edmund's town.

6. Alfred the Great: 871.—The reign of Alfred the Great, the youngest son of Ethelwulf, is one of the most important in the early history of the kingdom. When Alfred came to the throne, he found that of the England which his grandfather had won only the southern part remained to him. The rest of the country was in the hands of the Danes.

7. Struggles with the Danes.—In one year he defeated them in eight battles; then for a time they became masters, and Alfred was forced to hide in



ALFRED IN THE DANISH CAMP.

the marshes of Somersetshire. It is of this period that the well-known story is told of Alfred and the cakes when taking refuge in a herdsman's cottage.

8. **Defeat of the Danes: 878.**—Leaving his hiding-place and paying a secret visit to the Danish camp in the disguise of a harper, Alfred was able to find out the plans of his enemies. Returning to his friends, he attacked the Danes with a large force, and defeated them with great slaughter at Ethandun, in Wiltshire, 878. Alfred promised to give the Danes land on which to make their homes if they would become Christians. Guthrum, the Danish leader, and his followers agreed to Alfred's terms at the Treaty of Wedmore, and they were allowed to settle in the eastern part of Mercia.

9. **Improvement of the Country.**—Alfred not only gave his troubled country peace, but he did much to make his people happy and comfortable. Cities and towns that had been destroyed by the Danes were rebuilt, and schools and churches provided. The King himself translated into English numbers of books, and men of learning and skill were invited from other countries, that they might teach the English people.

10. **End of Alfred's Reign.**—After a few years peace was again broken. The famous sea-rover Hastings, with a fleet of two hundred and fifty ships, appeared upon the coast, and for more than three years was a terror to the people. After many hard battles Alfred defeated him, and forced him to leave the country. The few remaining years of Alfred's reign were spent in carrying out plans for the improvement of the people. He died in 901, worn out with the toils of serving his country, after a reign of thirty years. At the close of his life he

said, "So long as I have lived, I have striven to live worthily."

11. **Alfred the Great.**—Alfred was one of the greatest and best sovereigns that ever sat on a throne. He was not only a wise king, but he was also a good man. He is said to have been the greatest warrior, statesman, and scholar of the age in which he lived. So much good did he do, that he will be ever remembered as Alfred the Great. He was born at Wantage, in Berkshire; and in 1849 the people of that place celebrated the thousandth anniversary of his birth with great rejoicings.

11. OLD ENGLISH KINGS. (Part II.)

1. **Edward the Elder:** 901.—Edward, called the Elder because he was the first English King of that name, was the son of Alfred. Like his father, he was a great soldier. Aided by his sister, the Lady of Mercia, he was so successful in battle that some of the states which had before only paid tribute were now added to his kingdom. He was the first sovereign who took the title of King of all England.

2. **Athelstan:** 925.—Athelstan, the son of Edward the Elder, was an able King. He also was successful in his wars with the many enemies that surrounded him. The Angles had never willingly submitted to a West Saxon King. The Scots and the Welsh joined against him, but were defeated and made to pay a yearly tribute. After this the Danes invaded the country, and were assisted by

the Scots and the Welsh; but Athelstan defeated them all at the great battle of Brunanburh, north of the Humber. The Danes called him "The Great Conqueror." To encourage trade with other countries, Athelstan made a law that every merchant who had been three voyages in his own ship to the Mediterranean Sea, should be raised to the rank of thane or gentleman.

3. Edmund the First: 940.—When Athelstan died in 940, his brother Edmund became King. He was brave and clever, and had fought at Brunanburh. He very soon had to fight again, for the Danes rose in rebellion as soon as Athelstan was dead. Edmund marched northwards against them, and got the country into his own hands. He gave Cumberland to the Scottish King, Malcolm, to hold under him, that he might be Edmund's "fellow-worker by sea and land." Edmund's power was so great that he was called the "Magnificent." He had reigned only six years, when he was stabbed to death by a robber.

4. Edred: 946.—When Edmund died, his two sons were too young to rule, and the Witan, or wise men, made his brother Edred King. He succeeded in making the Danes obey him. His chief adviser was Dunstan, Abbot of Glastonbury, a man of great learning, who did much to draw the different races in the country more closely together.

5. Edwy: 955.—Edwy, the son of Edmund, and the nephew of the late King, came to the throne at the early age of sixteen. His reign was an

unhappy one. He quarrelled with Dunstan, whom he sent out of the country. The Mercians then rebelled against him, and made his brother Edgar their King. He recalled Dunstan, and made him Bishop of London.

6. **Edgar the Peaceable** : 959.—When Edwy died, Edgar became King of the whole country. In his reign England was strong and peaceful. He encouraged trade, and kept a large fleet, by means of which he was able to keep the Danes in check. He caused the Welsh nobles to pay a tax of three hundred wolves' heads every year. This did much to rid the land of those savage animals.

7. **Dunstan**.—The wise ruling of England at this period was greatly owing to Dunstan, who was made Archbishop of Canterbury. He tried to make the Danes and other races in the country feel satisfied, so that they all settled down peaceably together, and in time became one people.

8. **Edward the Martyr** : 975.—Edgar had been married twice. On his death his eldest son became King. Edgar's second wife wished to place her son Ethelred on the throne, and so she caused the King to be murdered when he was only eighteen years old. On account of this he is called Edward the Martyr. He had reigned about four years.

✓ 9. **Ethelred the Unready** : 978.—Ethelred the Second was the son of Edgar, and the half-brother of the late King Edward. He was only eleven years of age when he came to the throne. When he was old enough to govern, it was soon seen that he was too weak and foolish to make a good King.

On this account he was called "the Unready," which meant, "without wisdom."

10. **The Danegeld.**—Dark days came upon the land through the King's foolishness. The country was no longer united as in Edgar's reign, but was broken up into a number of little states, which were constantly quarrelling with each other. To Denmark and Norway the news went that neither the English King nor his people was strong enough to withstand an attack ; and so band after band of warlike Northmen came to burn and plunder as they had done before. Ethelred would not fight. He did what seemed an easier thing. He gave the Danes money to go away. This money he got from his people, in the form of a tax, which was called the Danegeld, or Dane-money. The Danes took the money and went away, but only to return soon again in larger numbers than ever.

11. **Normandy.**—Then Ethelred tried to make friends with a strong state on the other side of the English Channel ; in the north of France. This was Normandy. He married the Duke of Normandy's daughter ; but he did not get any help from the Duke against his enemies. This marriage must be remembered, because through it great changes came upon England some sixty or seventy years afterwards.

12. **The Massacre of the Danes : 1002.**—Ethelred at last grew tired of the constant coming of the Danes. He had no more money to spare, and so he thought of a plan to get rid of them. He sent secret orders throughout Wessex to put to death on

a certain day every Dane in the country. These orders were carried out, and one of the murdered Danes was a sister of the King of Denmark. Swift punishment followed. King Sweyn hurried over from Denmark with a large army, and invaded the country. A number of English joined with the Danes against Ethelred, who was obliged to flee for safety to Normandy. Before his departure the de-throned King said to some of his nobles: "We are not overcome by the swords or courage of the enemy, but by the treason and perfidy of our friends. Our navy is betrayed into the hands of the Danes; our armies are betrayed by the revolt of most of our officers; our designs betrayed to the enemy by our counsellors, who, instead of extricating us from troubles, are continually persuading us to infamous treaties; and your valour and loyalty are rendered ineffectual by the treachery of your leaders."

12. DANISH KINGS.

1. **The first Danish King: 1013.**—Sweyn had been fighting to get possession of the English kingdom for twelve years, but after he had gained it he lived only one month. He was declared King, but never crowned.

2. **Canute and Ethelred.**—On Sweyn's death Ethelred came home; but the wise men of Wessex, Mercia, and Northumbria would not have him for King. They chose Canute, the son of Sweyn. This was partly because of their great fear of the Danes.

It seemed better to submit to them than to have another struggle like that which had been going on for the last twelve years. Ethelred died in 1016.

3. **Edmund Ironside:** 1017.—Edmund, the son of Ethelred, was so brave and strong that people called him "Ironside." He was more like one of the Old English kings than his own weak father. He fought bravely for the throne, till at length Canute agreed that the kingdom should be divided between them. Seven months afterwards Edmund died, and Canute became King of the whole country.

4. **Canute:** 1017.—When once settled firmly on the throne, Canute showed himself to be a wise ruler. He rebuked the flattery of courtiers by showing them that the inrolling tide was no respecter of persons. He saw that it would not do to force Danish laws on the English people, so he ruled by the good laws of Alfred and Edgar. Danes and English were at peace under his rule, and the land prospered. The people cleared the forests and marshes, built houses, tilled the ground, and traded with merchants from other lands.

5. **Ethelred's Widow.**—Canute's wife was dead when he became King of England, so he married Emma of Normandy, the widow of Ethelred the Unready. She left her two sons, Edward and Alfred, the children of Ethelred, in Normandy. Hardicanute, the son of Canute and Emma, was the last Danish King of England.

6. **Canute's Letter.**—Canute once went as a pilgrim to Rome, and while there he wrote a long letter to his English subjects. "I have sent this



CANUTE ON THE SEA-SHORE.

letter before me," he said, "that all the people of my realm may rejoice in my well-doing; for, as you yourselves know, never have I spared nor will I

spare to spend myself and my toil in what is needful and good for my people."

7. He also said that none of his officers were to do wrong to rich or poor, as they valued his friendship and their own well-being. He would not allow the people to be taxed unfairly. "I have no need that money be heaped together for me by unjust demands." Canute died in 1035, after a reign of nineteen years. He was the ruler of England, Denmark, and Norway, and the most powerful monarch in Europe.

8. **The last Danish Kings.**—One of Canute's sons became King of Norway; another, Harold, became King of England; and the youngest, Hardicanute, ruled over Denmark. Harold was fond of hunting, and he received the name of Harefoot from his swiftness in running. He died in 1040, after a reign of five years.

9. Hardicanute, the son of Canute and Emma, now became King. He had been brought up in England, and therefore the people hoped that he would be a good King like his father, but it turned out that he was a wicked and cruel man. He had no love for the English people, and when he reimposed the heavy tax called the Danegeld they turned against him, and rose in rebellion. He died, in 1042, at a feast where he had been drinking heavily.

13. EDWARD THE CONFESSOR.

1. **Edward the Confessor:** 1042.—Upon the death of Hardicanute, the English people, tired of Danish rule, sought for a king of their own race and blood. They therefore gave the throne to Edward, the son of Ethelred the Unready and Emma of Normandy. Because he paid so much attention to religion he was known as the Confessor. He was a gentle, timid, and pious man, but was not fit for governing the kingdom. He lived more like a monk than a king, and left his work to be done by the strongest men in the land.

2. **Earl Godwin.**—The most powerful nobleman at this time was Godwin, Earl of Wessex. He could speak well in the Witan, and he knew how to rule men. He was clever, cautious, and hard-working; and he gained more power by the marriage of his daughter Edith to the King. He had several sons, but the most famous were Harold and Tostig.

3. **The Normans.**—In those days the Normans were more refined than the English, and their clergy were better scholars. Edward was a Norman in almost everything—in education, in dress, and in speech. He did not understand his English people, and could never see the harm he was doing in giving the best places in the land to his Norman friends.

4. We should remember that the Normans were not French people. They were really Danes and Northmen, who about a hundred years before had settled in the north of France, just as their countrymen had settled in England. The province in France

in which they lived was called Normandy, or North-man-dy—land of the Northmen.

5. The Normans were by this time thoroughly French in all their ways, and spoke the French language. They were thus far more unlike the English than the Danes were who had settled in England. The English were very angry when they saw their King surrounded by Norman-French favourites, and the Church filled with Norman-French priests. Edward made one Norman monk Bishop of Rochester, and another Bishop of London, and afterwards even Archbishop of Canterbury.

6. Godwin an Exile.—Earl Godwin's eldest son was a wild, bad man, who did many wrong things and brought evil upon his father. He was driven out of the country; but Godwin unwisely forced the King to pardon him, and to let him return. At length a quarrel arose between the King and the Earl, when Godwin and all his family were declared to be outlaws, and forced to leave the country.

7. William, Duke of Normandy.—During the absence of Godwin, William, Duke of Normandy, the grandson of Queen Emma's brother, paid a visit to England. It is said that Edward promised to leave his crown to William. This he had no right to do; for the English King was always chosen by the Witan. There was little likelihood that William would be their choice, seeing that he was not an Englishman, and had nothing to do with England.

8. Godwin's Return.—The people found out that they could not get on well without Godwin. Ed-



WESTMINSTER ABBEY.
(Founded by Edward the Confessor.)

ward allowed his Norman friends to do what they pleased, and there was no proper government in the land. So Godwin was allowed to come home, and the Witan gave him back his lands and the power which he had before. The King was not glad to see him, but he had to submit; and many of the Normans fled across the Channel.

9. **Harold.**—Godwin did not live long after his return; but his second son, Harold, was able to take his father's place. He was a clever man; and while he governed England, the King hunted, and spent his time in devotion, and built the great church of Westminster, where the Abbey now stands.

10. **Westminster Abbey.**—Edward commenced to

build this church in the year 1049, and it was finished in 1065. He designed it for his own burial-place, and here he was buried before the altar a few days after its consecration. It was rebuilt by Henry the Third, who placed the body of the Confessor in a splendid tomb behind the high altar in St. Edward's Chapel, or the Chapel of the Kings. As time passed on, this grand building became sacred with the dust of kings, warriors, statesmen, and poets, who found a last resting-place within its walls. And within a few yards of the Confessor's grave every one of our sovereigns, from the Conqueror to George the Fifth, has received the crown.

11. As Edward the Confessor had no children, people began to look on Harold as the next King. He was the son of the great Godwin, a thorough Englishman, and a brave soldier. He had ruled the country well for many a year; why should he not be made King?

12. Duke William of Normandy had been watching Harold's doings in England very carefully, and had known for some time that the English Earl was the only man who could come between him and the throne. Therefore when, as the result of a shipwreck, he was able to take Harold prisoner, he made the Earl promise to help him to the English throne on the death of Edward. Harold did not intend to keep his promise. It had been forced from him, and therefore he did not regard it as binding. Not long after this Edward died in 1066, naming Harold as his successor.

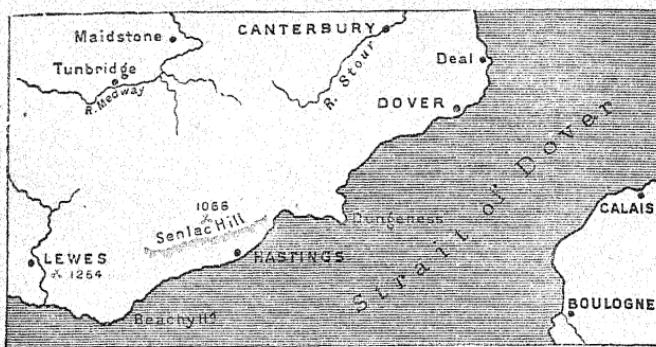
14. THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1. Harold the Second: 1066.—Edward the Confessor left his crown to his brother-in-law, Harold, the second son of Earl Godwin. In January 1066 Edward died, and Harold was elected King by the Witan, and crowned at Westminster. There were four Kings of England that year.

2. William's Preparations.—When the Duke of Normandy heard that Harold had been made King he was very angry, and began at once to make ready for war. He sent everywhere for soldiers, to whom he promised rich lands in England, if only they would help him to win the kingdom. He began also to build a fleet to carry his army across the Channel.

3. Tostig.—Harold's brother, Tostig, Earl of Northumberland, had been banished for ill-treating the people. Because he was not allowed to return to the country, he became a bitter enemy of Harold, and invaded England. Joined by Hardrada, King of Norway, who aimed at the English crown, he sailed up the Humber, and landed in Yorkshire. Harold hastened with an army to the scene of conflict, and was willing to make peace with his brother; but when Tostig asked what favours would be granted to Hardrada, Harold replied, "Seven feet of English earth for a grave." A battle then took place at Stamford Bridge, in which both Tostig and the King of Norway were slain.

4. The Coming of the Normans.—Four days after this battle had been fought in Yorkshire, Duke



William and his army landed at Pevensey in Sussex. Harold marched southwards to oppose him. The English took up a position on the hill of Senlac, nine miles from Hastings, and there waited for the Normans.

5. The English royal body-guard wore armour and carried great battle-axes, but a large part of the army was made up of country folk, half-armed and half-drilled. William had horses and horse-soldiers, splendid knights in full armour, skilled archers, and a banner blessed by the Pope.

6. The Battle of Senlac Hill or Hastings.—The 14th of October 1066, Harold's birthday, was the day of the great battle. The Normans commenced the attack, and the English stood like a rock. At one time the Normans began to fall back, and there was a cry that their leader was killed; but William pulled off his helmet, that all men might see his face, and cried, "I live, and by God's help will conquer!"

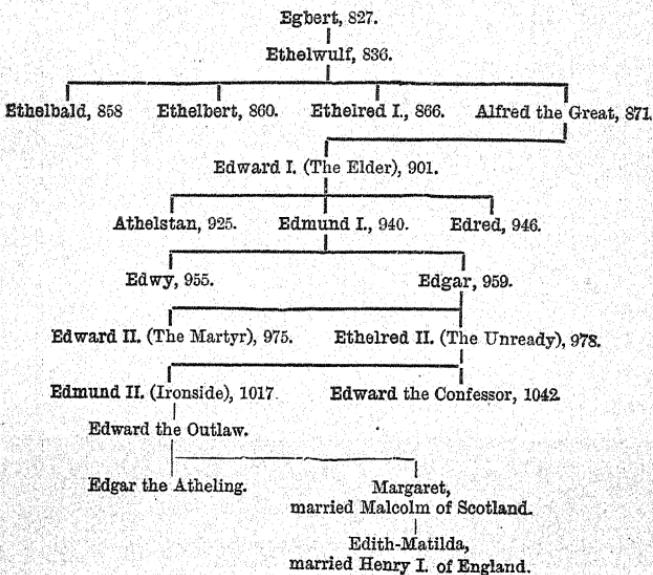
7. Unable to break the English ranks, William

ordered his soldiers to pretend to run away. The English followed them; upon which the Normans turned and cut them to pieces. A small band of heroes was driven back to the top of the hill, with Harold in their midst. Though all hope was lost, the battle still raged. If the English standard fell from one dead hand, another hand grasped it instantly and held it firm. It is said that a harder battle or a longer was never fought on British soil.

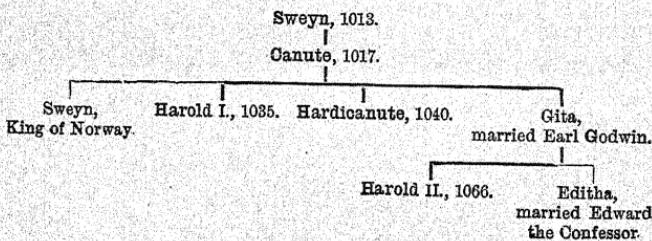
8. **Death of Harold.**—At length an arrow struck Harold's right eye, and pierced into his brain. He fell, but still the fighting went on round his body. One brave man after another fell in defence of the royal standard and the dead King. When night came on all was over, and William, says an old writer, "sat down to eat and drink among the dead."

9. **Edgar Atheling.**—There was no one left of Godwin's house to strive for the crown, and the only heir was little Edgar Atheling (Edgar the Prince), the grandson of Edmund Ironside. The Witan made him King, hoping that all Englishmen would fight for him against the Normans; but he was never crowned.

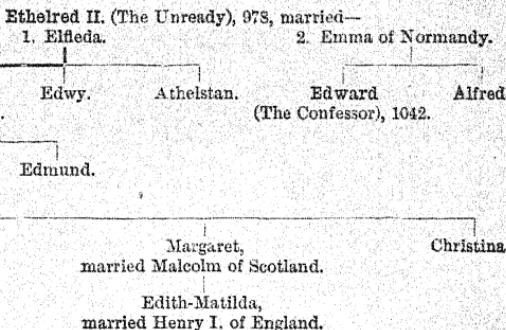
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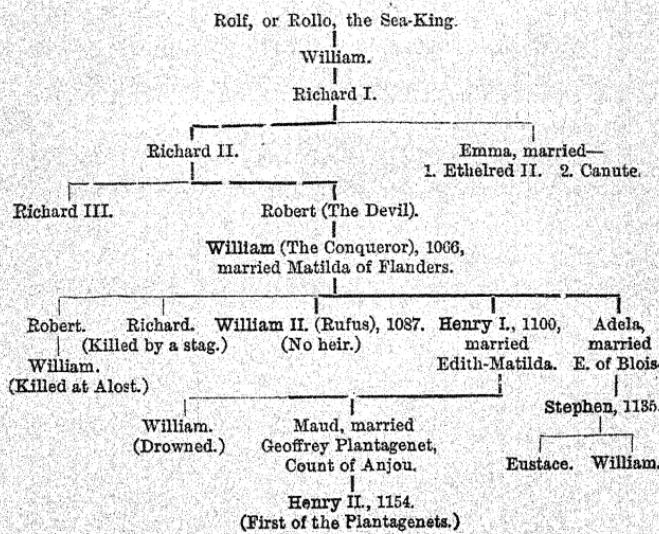
DANISH LINE



OLD ENGLISH LINE.



NORMAN LINE.



THE NORMAN LINE.

(FOUR KINGS.)

| | |
|---|----------------------|
| 1. WILLIAM I. (<i>The Conqueror</i>)..... | 1066-1087: 21 years. |
| 2. WILLIAM II. (<i>Rufus</i>), son..... | 1087-1100: 13 years. |
| 3. HENRY I. (<i>Beaumont</i>), brother..... | 1100-1135: 35 years. |
| 4. STEPHEN, nephew..... | 1135-1154: 19 years. |

15. WILLIAM I.

1066 to 1087: 21 years.

1. **William the Conqueror.**—William, Duke of Normandy, was crowned King of England in Westminster Abbey on Christmas-day, 1066. After the Battle of Hastings, the people of London knew that they could not hold out against William. They therefore offered him the crown. At their head was young Edgar Atheling. The Witan elected William to be King, and the crown was placed on his head by the same archbishop who had crowned Harold in January of that year. William granted the city of London a charter, or written pledge, which secured to the citizens the liberties they had enjoyed under Edward the Confessor.

2. **William and the English.**—Following the example of Canute, William tried to reign, not as a conqueror, but as an English King. No changes were made in the laws; the Norman soldiers were kept strictly in order; and William even tried to learn the English language, in order that he might understand the complaints of his new subjects. To hold the Londoners in check, he began at once to build a strong fortress on the banks of the Thames.

This was the beginning of the famous Tower of London.

3. **Rising of the English.**—A few months after the



WILLIAM THE FIRST.

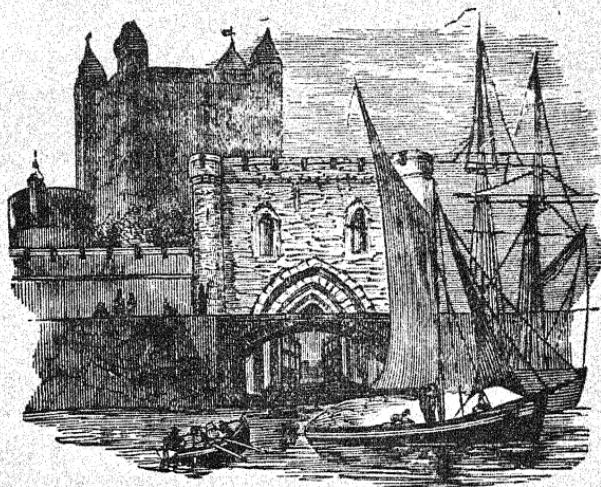
conquest, William spent the summer in Normandy, leaving England in charge of his half-brother Odo, Bishop of Bayeux, and a noble named William Fitz-

osbern. But they did not govern wisely, and the people rose against them. William suddenly returned, and four years' fighting followed. In the north-east the people were joined by the Danes, who came in a large fleet. The Danes and the English together took York, and put to death three thousand Normans. When the news of this defeat reached William he was very angry, and at once marched with a large force to York.

4. William paid the Danes to go back to their own country, took York out of the hands of the English, and then marched over the ground between York and Durham, burning every town and village, and destroying the crops and cattle. Large numbers of people were killed, and it is said that one hundred thousand died of want. Many of those who survived sold themselves into slavery to get food.

5. Hereward the Saxon.—Many of the English land-owners, when driven from their estates, fled into the woods, whence they often made sudden attacks on the Normans. The most famous of these Englishmen was Hereward the Saxon, who built a wooden fort as "a camp of refuge" in the Isle of Ely, which was surrounded by marshes. Here he held out for a long time, until some monks of Ely showed the Conqueror a secret path to his stronghold. "Had there been three more men like Hereward in the island," said one of William's followers, "the Normans would never have entered it." Hereward and William became friends, and the King gave the Saxon lands and a place at court.

6. Division of the Land.—William's followers had



TOWER OF LONDON.
(Founded by the Conqueror, 1078.)

been promised great rewards, and he now set about dividing the lands of the English. In order to do this without appearing to seize the land that belonged to another, he said that he had been the lawful King ever since the Confessor's death, and that any Englishman who had fought against him was a rebel, and had therefore lost all right to his land.

7. William allowed some of his English subjects to possess land ; but he always made them buy it from him, and be thenceforth his vassals or servants. To prevent the Norman barons from growing too powerful, he gave them lands in different parts of the kingdom. A great Norman baron had not one large estate, but a number of small ones far apart from each other.

8. **The Feudal System.**—All the land now belonged

to the King. He gave it to the greatest of his earls, barons, and knights. They had not to pay rent for it, but had to promise that in time of war they would fight for the King. Each land-owner came unarmed and bare-headed into the King's presence, knelt down before him, put his hands in his, and swore to be the King's "man" in life and in death. This was called "doing homage," and the land that was held in this way was called a "fief." William himself did homage to the King of France for Normandy; but in England he was the land-owner, and men did homage to him.

9. The great lords found that they could not easily manage their large estates, and so they in turn let out portions of them to smaller lords on the same conditions. Then the smaller lords divided their lands again among lesser men, and these again among others beneath them. The Feudal System was something like a great tree. The strong trunk might stand for the king, the large branches for his barons, then smaller branches spread out from these, twigs from the smaller branches, and leaves at the ends of the twigs, to show the men of lower rank. Every man in the country was bound to fight for the man from whom he held his land.

10. **William and the Pope.**—The Church had lost much of its power for good in England, and the Pope asked William to help him to reform it. The King promised to do so on these conditions—1. That neither Pope, nor any one acting for him, nor letters from the Pope, should be received in England without the King's leave. 2. That no meeting of the

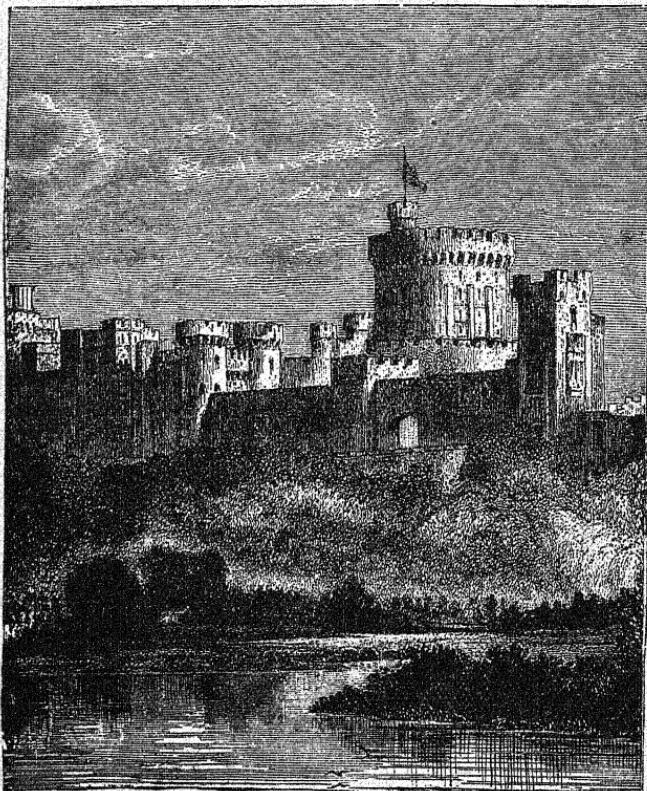
clergy should be called, or should take any action, without his leave. 3. That no baron or servant of his should be cut off from the Church without his leave. In this way William showed his determination not to allow any earthly power to come between him and his people.

11. **The New Forest.**—William was a great lover of hunting; and although there were several royal forests for that purpose, he wished to have one in the south of England near his palace at Winchester. For this purpose, he laid waste the country for ninety miles round, destroying more than thirty parish churches and all the dwellings of the people, who were driven out and obliged to seek homes elsewhere. Two of the Conqueror's sons, Richard and William Rufus, were killed while hunting in this forest. It is called the New Forest to this day.

12. **The Forest Laws.**—William's forest laws were very severe. He made it as great a crime to kill an animal as to kill a man. He "loved the tall deer as though he were their father;" and whoever killed a deer or a boar had his eyes put out.

13. **The Curfew Bell.**—One of William's laws was that every English household was to put out its lights and fires at eight o'clock at night. The church bell in each parish was rung every night to warn the people of the hour. The French words for "cover fire" were *couver feu*, and so the bell was called the Curfew Bell. This law was intended to keep the wooden houses of the time from the risk of taking fire.

14. **Windsor Castle.**—Twenty miles from London, on Castle Hill, a chalk cliff rising from the right



WINDSOR CASTLE.

bank of the Thames, the Conqueror built a Norman keep in which to lodge his enemies. It was one of the strongest works in England, and was used as a prison till Henry the First built a royal dwelling there. Since then Windsor Castle has been the principal residence of the English sovereigns.

15. **Domesday Book.**—Towards the end of William's reign a survey was made of the whole country. This was written in a book called the Domesday or Doomsday Book—a name given, it is said, by the English, because, like the Day of Doom, it spared no one. The King wanted to know how many land-holders there were, and exactly how much land they owned. The King's men were sent into every shire, and into every "hundred" in that shire, to ask five questions—1. Who held this land in King Edward's (the Confessor's) day ? 2. What was it worth then ? 3. Who owns it now ? 4. What is it worth now ? 5. Can its worth be raised ?

16. The record classes the people as barons, thanes, small land-owners, tenants, slaves. It mentions the different kinds of employment followed by the people. Among them were hawk-keepers, bow-keepers, foresters, armourers, minstrels, and many others. The land is described as corn land, meadow, pasture, and wood land. There is also a list of vineyards, gardens, salt-works, iron-mines, and fisheries. The old chronicle says that not a single rood of land was passed by, and that every pig and cow was counted. From this book William knew exactly how much or how little he should tax each land-owner.

17. **Taxes.**—In those days people did not understand why they should have to pay taxes. They seemed to think that the King had quite enough property of his own, and could manage the affairs of the country without any payment from them. William was on the whole a just ruler: he taxed the people at first justly and then unjustly. As he grew

older he grew fonder of money, and heaped up great treasures in his chief city of Winchester.

18. **The Oath of Salisbury:** 1086.—It was not enough to see the names of the land-owners written in the Domesday Book. The King wished to meet the men face to face; for he saw that those who held the lands of his barons might some day obey the barons rather than him. He therefore thought it better that they should take their lands direct from himself. In 1086 a great meeting was held on Salisbury Plain, near Stonehenge, and there every land-owner did homage to William, and promised to serve him.

19. The Salisbury meeting was important, because it made England one. Never again was the land broken up into small kingdoms. In less than one hundred years from this time, the different races had become one people—Danes, English, and Normans, all were English. Though the Normans conquered the land, they never conquered the language or changed the name of the country. A great many French words have been used among us ever since; but the language itself is not French, but English.

20. **Death of William.**—The King's later years were troubled by the ill conduct of his sons. They fought with him and with each other. A quarrel between France and Normandy caused William to burn the town of Mantes. While he was watching the fire, his horse stumbled over some hot cinders, and the King was hurt against his saddle. Six weeks later he died at Rouen, and was buried at Caen.

21. **William's Character.**—William was a just ruler and a wise statesman. Of him the English chron-

icle says: "So harsh and cruel was he that none dared resist his will. If a man would live and hold his lands, need it were he followed the King's will." And yet it was also said of him that "he was mild to them that loved God." He was so much against capital punishment that only one person was executed during his reign.

22. The Conqueror's Children.—William left three sons—Robert, William, and Henry. He also left a daughter, Adela, who married a powerful French nobleman, Stephen, Count of Blois. To Robert, his eldest son, he left Normandy. Richard, the best of all his sons, had been killed while hunting in the New Forest. Henry, the youngest, was to have a large sum of money; but to William he left England. The Conqueror put his own ring on William's finger, and sent him away from his death-bed to secure the crown of England.

23. The Making of England.—William the Conqueror was not an Englishman, and yet he did more to make England what it is to-day than any other single man. In twenty years he laid the foundation and shaped the general outline of the future social and political life of England. It was indeed a good thing for this country that he came, and with his strong hand, clear brain, and resolute will brought order, safety, and strength. Guizot, the French historian, when writing of this period, said: "England owes her liberties to her having been conquered by the Normans." It was not a conquest of the English by a different race, but rather a victory won for their advantage by a branch of their own race.

16. WILLIAM II.

1087 to 1100: 13 years.

1. **William Rufus.**—William, the son of the Conqueror, was called Rufus, or the Red King, on account of his ruddy appearance. He was crowned by Lanfranc, Archbishop of Canterbury, as soon as the news came across the Channel that his father was dead.

2. **Struggle with the Barons.**—The barons, led by William's uncle Odo, rose in favour of Robert against William three months after he was crowned. The King called upon all who had sworn to be faithful to his father on Salisbury Plain to come and help him, and he promised to rule well, and to do away with the forest laws. The people saw plainly that it was better to obey one strong King than a great number of lawless barons, who would do as they pleased if they had a feeble King at their head; and they flocked to William's standard. The barons were defeated, and forced to submit to William.

3. **War with Malcolm of Scotland: 1093.**—While these things were going on, Malcolm the Third, King of Scotland, led an army into England. Peace was, however, arranged before a battle had been fought. In the following year Malcolm invaded Northumberland. While trying to take Alnwick Castle, he is said to have been pierced in the eye and killed by an English knight.

4. **William and Robert.**—It seemed to many of the people unfair that William should be King while the Conqueror's eldest son Robert was alive; but he

could never have governed the country properly. He was so lazy that he would sometimes lie in bed for days at a time, and so easy and weak that he could not say "No" to any one. He was kindly



WILLIAM THE SECOND.

and generous, and brave in battle, but not fitted to rule. When the barons took the part of Robert against his brother, they thought that they would get more of their own way if they had a careless,

easy-going King. In the end William and Robert agreed that the one who should outlive the other should have both England and Normandy. Soon after, Robert left the country to take part in a Crusade.

5. **The Crusades.**—The Holy Land had been for a long time in the hands of the Turks, who were followers of Mohammed, and hate the Christian religion. Christians from all parts of Europe used to visit the places where they believed their Lord had lived and died. The Holy Sepulchre, where Christ was said to have been buried, was very dear to them ; but they were often ill-used by the Turks.

6. **Peter the Hermit.**—One of these poor pilgrims, a French monk named Peter the Hermit, came back to Europe to tell the story of their sufferings. He went from city to city, and from village to village, preaching everywhere, and stirring up the people to go and take Jerusalem from the Turks. The Pope gave this plan his blessing, and called upon Christians everywhere in Europe to join the army of the Cross. Those who went wore a red cross on the left arm, and from this the war was called a Holy War or a Crusade.

7. **The First Crusade : 1096.**—The Kings of England and France approved of the scheme ; and Robert was so eager to take part in the first Crusade that he gave up the government of Normandy for five years to his brother William, who in return lent him ten thousand marks (about six thousand pounds in our money). Robert followed the Red Cross banner to the Holy Land, and was there till



THE CRUSADES IN SIGHT OF JERUSALEM

after William's death. After enduring great hardships, and fighting many bloody battles, the Crusaders came in sight of Jerusalem, which they took after a siege of five weeks. It remained in the hands of the Christians till 1187.

8. **William's Greed.**—When Lanfranc, the Archbishop of Canterbury, died, William did not appoint a successor to him for more than four years; for he thought he might as well have the money himself which came in year by year from the archbishop's lands. He did the same thing when any bishop or abbot died. He kept their places vacant, and quietly used the money.

9. When any one wished to be a bishop or an abbot, he had to buy the office from the King. The people were taxed heavily and unjustly. Thieves could escape punishment by paying money to the King. The heir of a nobleman had to pay a sum of money when he succeeded to his property. A father who wished his daughter to be married had also to pay for the King's leave. The King's chief men lived upon the country people wherever they went—ate their food, took their horses, cut down their crops, and treated them like slaves.

10. **Anselm.**—Once when William was ill, and afraid that he was going to die, he tried to make amends to the Church for his bad treatment of her by appointing an Italian priest named Anselm Archbishop of Canterbury. Anselm was a good, gentle, learned man. He did not wish to be archbishop, for he knew that it would not be easy to live in peace with such a man as William, and yet dare to do

right and speak the truth. But he was dragged to the King's bedside, and the crosier, or bishop's staff, was forced into his hands.

11. Anselm's gentleness was not weakness. When the King recovered from his illness and from his fear of death, the archbishop spoke out bravely, and tried to stop him from doing wrong. The King wished to make Anselm pay for his office; but this the archbishop could not do. At length Anselm, unwilling to endure the Red King's fury, left the country and went back to Normandy.

12. **Flambard.**—At the head of all the courts in England was a rough, cruel man named Ralph Flambard (the torch, or firebrand), a Norman priest whom the King had made Bishop of Durham. He ruled the kingdom when William was in Normandy, and it was he who made the plans to enrich the King by fining and taxing his people, and by keeping offices vacant that their incomes might fall into his hands.

13. **The Death and Character of William.**—The last three years of William's life were the darkest that the English people had known for a long time. There was famine in the land, and the King's desire for money could not be satisfied. In 1100 William went out with a hunting party in the New Forest. At sunset he was found lying dead, with an arrow sticking in his breast. A poor charcoal-burner carried the body in his cart into Winchester.

14. Whose hand shot the arrow none can tell. It is said that Walter Tyrrel, one of the King's knights, killed the King by accident, and ran away

lest he should be charged with having murdered him. It is not unlikely that William was killed by some one whom he had badly treated. William was a strong, bold, fierce man, who had no thought but to please himself at the expense of his people. A writer of that time declared that "He feared God but little, man not at all."

17. HENRY I.

1100 to 1135: 35 years.

1. **Henry Beauclerc.**—Henry, the youngest son of the Conqueror, was on the whole a better man than his brother William; and as he could read and write, he was called Beauclerc (*Bo'clair*), or fine scholar. On the death of Rufus he hastened to Winchester, and, in the absence of his brother Robert, got himself proclaimed King. The eldest brother was thus set aside for the second time. Henry was one of those men who are said to have a good head, but no heart; and he had the sense to govern England fairly, knowing that such a course would be better for himself.

2. **The English people were inclined to like him,** for he had been born and brought up in England; and they were very glad when he sent Flambard to prison and brought Archbishop Anselm home.

3. **The Charter.**—Henry saw that the people would be his best support. The barons were always unruly, and he knew they wished Duke Robert to come home and be King. Henry there-

fore tried to make the people his friends. So he gave a charter, or written promise, in which he said that the old laws of Edward the Confessor should come into use again, with the laws which



HENRY THE FIRST.

his father the Conqueror had added. He also said that the "evil customs" of his brother in Church matters should be abolished; that people might

leave their property to any one they pleased ; and that the barons should deal justly with their vassals or servants.

4. An Old English Princess.—The sister of Edgar Atheling had married Malcolm of Scotland, who had now a grown-up daughter named Edith. She belonged to the Old English royal family. To please the people, Henry married this lady. The joy of the English was great, for they remembered that their new Queen was a great-grand-daughter of Edmund Ironside, and was descended from their beloved Alfred the Great, and even from Cerdic, the first King of Wessex. To please the Normans, Edith took the name of Matilda, and is sometimes called Edith-Matilda. She died in 1118, leaving two children, William and Maud. This Maud helped to bring about the union of Normans and English.

5. Henry and Anselm. The King and the Archbishop could not agree ; for Anselm maintained that bishops should be appointed by the Pope, while Henry was determined to keep this power in his own hands. "No one," said he, "shall remain in my land who will not do me homage." The quarrel ended in a compromise. The Pope was to invest the bishop with ring and crosier as emblems of the spiritual power ; but the bishop had to do homage to the King for his lands.

6. Henry and Robert.—Robert was still in the Holy Land when Henry became King, but he started at once for England and claimed the crown. The barons joined Robert when he landed at Ports-

mouth ; but Henry defeated them, and Robert went back to govern Normandy. He agreed to give up his claim to England in return for a yearly pension of three thousand marks.

7. Normandy, however, began to suffer so much from the misrule of Robert that Henry determined to interfere. He crossed the Channel, and defeated Robert at the Battle of Tenchebrai in 1106. Normandy was then attached to the English Crown. As a prisoner in Cardiff Castle, in Wales, he remained for the rest of his life. His death took place in 1134. It is said that his eyes were put out by Henry's orders.

8. **The White Ship:** 1120.—Henry's only son was drowned while crossing from Normandy to England. When the King heard the sad news, he fell to the ground in a swoon. It is said that from that day Henry never smiled again.

9. **Maud.**—Henry had but one child left, a daughter, who had married the Emperor of Germany, and was now a widow. To keep the crown in his own family, he married her to the son of the Count of Anjou, and then made all his barons swear that they would make her Queen after his death, which took place in 1135.

10. **Progress.**—In this reign the city of London grew rich and important. Henry gave it a special charter, and allowed it to rule itself. Weights and measures were brought into use, the King's arm being the standard for the yard. The woollen manufacture was begun in England by some Flemings at Worsted in Norfolk.

18. STEPHEN.

1135 to 1154: 19 years.

1. **Stephen of Blois.**—When Henry was dead the throne was claimed by one of the barons who had sworn to obey Maud. This was Stephen, Maud's cousin, and the son of the Conqueror's daughter Adela, who had married the Count of Blois.

2. Many barons took Stephen's part, because they did not want a woman to rule over them. It had been the custom in France for a long period not to allow the crown to descend to a female, and in an age when the sovereign was expected to command his own army, it was not a suitable position for a woman. The people of London took Stephen's part, the gates of the city were thrown open to him and he was chosen King. He promised to govern well; but he did not keep his promise.

3. **The Barons.**—Some of the barons, remembering their promise to Henry, took up arms for Maud; and some held by Stephen. Most of the barons built castles, and did what they could to make themselves powerful. These castles became the strongholds of lawless robber-nobles, who were more powerful than the King himself.

4. **Battle of the Standard:** 1138.—Three years after Stephen became King, Maud's uncle, David of Scotland, marched across the Border to take the throne from Stephen, and met the English at Northallerton in Yorkshire. At the head of the English army was the Archbishop of York, who took to the battle-field a car on which was fixed a

pole or standard bearing the banners of saints.
Hand in hand the English chiefs swore to conquer



STEPHEN.

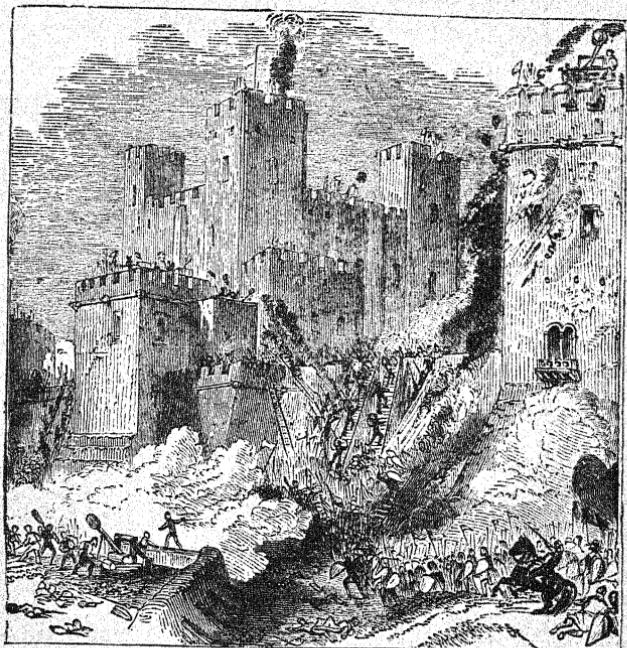
or die. They knelt in prayer, and rose to battle. David was defeated with a loss of twelve thousand men. Two years afterwards Stephen gave Northumberland to the Scottish King; after this Maud received no more help from her uncle.

5. **Stephen and Maud.**—Maud came to England in 1139, and there followed civil war. The barons in the north and west fought for her, and those in the south and east for Stephen. She was once chosen Queen, but was never crowned. If she had acted wisely, she might have won her father's throne in spite of Stephen; but when the power was in her hands she did not treat the people well.

6. **Stephen a Prisoner.**—Stephen, who had been defeated at the Battle of Lincoln, was at this time a prisoner in Bristol Castle; but he was set at liberty in exchange for the Queen's half-brother Robert, who had been made prisoner by Stephen's friends. Maud was now besieged in Oxford, and would have fallen into the hands of the King, had she not escaped one snowy night in white garments. When her great friend and helper, her half-brother Robert, died, she gave up the struggle and retired to Normandy.

7. **Maud's Son Henry.**—In 1152 Henry, the son of Maud, invaded England; but the sudden death of Stephen's eldest son brought about an agreement called the Treaty of Wallingford, which declared that Stephen should remain King for life, and at his death Henry should have the crown.

8. **Death and Character of Stephen.**—Stephen's death took place in 1154. During the last year of his reign he tried in vain to put a stop to some of the disorders which had been going on for so long a time in his kingdom. He was handsome, brave, and gentle-hearted, but he lacked the qualities that are needed in a capable ruler.



A NORMAN CASTLE.

19. LIFE AMONG THE NORMANS.

1. A Norman Castle.—The Norman barons lived in strongly-situated castles with strongly-built walls. In the centre of each castle was a tall square building called a *keep*; and round the outside of the wall of the castle proper ran a deep ditch or moat filled with water, across which a drawbridge led to the gateway. This bridge could be drawn up by means of a chain worked from within the walls, that the approach to the castle might be thus cut off.

2. Even should an enemy manage to cross the moat and force the gate, the castle was not yet taken. Bowmen, posted at every loophole in the keep, poured down their arrows upon the besiegers who were thronging the courtyard and striving to reach the narrow stair by which alone the inside could be gained. These loopholes were at once the windows and means of defence of the castles. In such strongholds the barons, surrounded by their servants or vassals, often held out even against the King himself. These vassals tilled the fields which lay around the castle in times of peace, and followed the banner of their lords in times of war.

3. **Furniture.**—The furniture of a Norman castle was of a much ruder kind than that in use at the present day. The arm-chair, on which the baron sat at the head of the table, was covered with drapery and cushions; and his bedstead was surmounted by a roof, and draped round with curtains. Both the lord of the castle and his retainers slept on beds of straw. Vessels of silver and glass adorned the cupboards; but the dishes in daily use were generally of a coarser material. The apartments were poorly lighted. Sputtering oil-lamps and smoky candles lent but a sickly light, the large wood fire alone yielding a cheerful glow during the winter evenings.

4. **Meals.**—The Normans were astir early, when they took a light meal for breakfast. The dinner-hour was nine in the morning, and supper was served about four or five in the afternoon. Wines from abroad were found on the tables of the rich; but the poorer classes contented themselves with

home-brewed ale. The English labourers, who were little better than slaves, lived almost entirely on coarse bread and cheese.

5. **Peculiar Characters.**—While dinner was being served in a Norman castle, beggars crowded round the door, and strove with one another for places of advantage on the stairs. So unruly were these visitors that servants were posted here and there to prevent them from helping themselves from the dishes which were being passed up to table. Within the hall was the minstrel with his harp, awaiting the commands of the baron. From a chain round his neck was suspended the *wrest* or tuning-key, and a plate of silver on his arm formed the badge of his calling. The fool, or jester, with his cap and bells, and quaint motley dress of red and yellow, had also his place in the hall.

6. Among the vassals at the lower end of the hall might be seen the palmer or pilgrim from the Holy Land. His hat was decked with shells; he wore sandals on his feet; and the iron-pointed staff which he carried was crowned with a branch of palm. Another personage who was often to be seen about the halls of the great, and who was known by the high yellow cap which he wore, was the money-lending, money-making Jew. The native serfs, who ~~scrambled~~ and fought among themselves for the remains of the feast, squatted on the rush-strewn earthen floor at the end of the hall farthest from the dais or platform, on which sat the noble lord and his guests. The garments of these slaves were of untanned skins, and round the neck of each was

a collar of brass, on which was engraven the name of his master.

7. Amusements.—Hunting and hawking were the chief pastimes of the nobles in times of peace. Indeed, to hunt or to hawk was regarded as the special privilege of men of rank, and stern laws were enacted against all others who dared to hunt in the forests of the feudal lord. During the summer evenings the baron along with his guests watched the vassals at their games. Bull-baiting was a favourite sport; but wrestling, boxing, and leaping were also engaged in to a great extent, while the courtyard often resounded with the shouts of football players. Music and dancing whiled away the long winter nights.

Policy of Knights 8. Chivalry or Knighthood.—The order of Knighthood was the natural outcome of an age of daring. Men fought for their religion, for their ladies, and indeed for very existence. Hence king and gentleman alike strove to become skilful in the use of the weapons of war. The training which alone led up to knighthood was the same for all. Each novice must have served as page and esquire before he could take the vows; and on the night before the ceremony he must have kept a lonely watch in some church over the arms which on the morrow fair hands were to gird about him. *The hands of a lady.*

9. When all this had been done, the young man, in the presence of his friends and kindred, took an oath to be loyal to the King, to defend religion, and to be the champion of any lady in danger or distress. Next a high-born lady or great warrior buckled on



KNIGHTS.

his spurs and girded the sword, which the priest had blessed, to his side. He then knelt to the prince, who struck him on the shoulder with the flat of his sword, saying, "In the name of God, St. Michael, and St. George, I dub thee knight. Be brave, hardy, and loyal." If he proved false to his vows, the knight was publicly degraded. His ~~spurs~~ were taken off, his shield was reversed, and his armour was broken to pieces.

10. When the knight went forth to battle he was clad in close-fitting armour, and carried as weapons



TOURNAMENT.

a ~~lance~~, a two-handed sword, and, in addition, a small ~~dagger~~ with which to despatch his enemy. His helmet was adorned with a crest, and on his shield was painted a ~~coat-of-arms~~.

11. The Knights Templars were an order which arose from the Crusades. They were half soldiers

half priests, and were known by a long cloak which they wore, and upon which was sewn the emblem of the Cross. Different nations wore crosses of different colours.

12. The Tournament.—This was the chief sport of knighthood. Within an enclosed space, called the lists, knights strove with knights in simple trials of skill in the use of arms, or, if enemies, in combat to the death. The nobles and their ladies witnessed the sport from raised galleries, while their vassals crowded round the barriers. When the heralds proclaimed the combat, the opposing knights, mounted and armed with lance or spear, dashed down upon each other from both ends of the lists, each striving to unhorse the other.

13. The victor of the first day named a lady as Queen of Love and Beauty, who presided over the remainder of the tournament, and from whose hands the victorious knights received the rewards of their bravery. The last day of the sports was confined to the yeomen or vassals, whose favourite amusement was archery. In *Ivanhoe* Sir Walter Scott has given a stirring description of a tournament and its attendant circumstances.



Map illustrating English Possessions in France when Henry the Second ascended the throne in 1154.

Henry the Second was not only King of England, but he also ruled over one-third of France.

1. From his mother Maud, the grand-daughter of William the Conqueror (Duke of Normandy), he inherited—

England; Normandy and Maine, in the north of France.

2. From his father Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou, he inherited—

Anjou and Touraine, south of Maine.

3. With his wife Eleanor of Poitou and Aquitaine, the divorced wife of Louis VII. of France, he received Poitou and Aquitaine (*afterwards called Guienne*), in the south-west of France.

4. Conan, Duke of Brittany, ceded that province to Henry in 1159.

THE PLANTAGENET LINE.

(EIGHT KINGS.)

| | |
|---|----------------------|
| 1. HENRY II. (<i>Plantagenet</i>) | 1154-1189: 35 years. |
| 2. RICHARD I. (<i>Cœur de Lion</i>), son | 1189-1199: 10 years. |
| 3. JOHN (<i>Lackland</i>), brother | 1199-1216: 17 years. |
| 4. HENRY III. (<i>Winchester</i>), son | 1216-1272: 56 years. |
| 5. EDWARD I. (<i>Longshanks</i>), son | 1272-1307: 35 years. |
| 6. EDWARD II. (<i>Caernarvon</i>), son | 1307-1327: 20 years. |
| 7. EDWARD III. (<i>Windsor</i>), son | 1327-1377: 50 years. |
| 8. RICHARD II. (<i>Bordeaux</i>), grandson..... | 1377-1399: 22 years. |

20. HENRY II.

1154 to 1189: 35 years.

1. Henry Plantagenet.—Henry the Second was the son of Maud, daughter of Henry the First, and Geoffrey Plantagenet, Count of Anjou. He was the first of a long line of Kings, who were all called Plantagenet, because the badge; or coat-of-arms, of the House of Anjou was a sprig of broom. The Latin name for broom is *planta genista*, and from this the House of Anjou received the name Plantagenet. The name Angevin, also given to this line, comes from Anjou.

2. Henry received a hearty welcome from the English people, who remembered that he was descended, through his mother Maud, or Matilda, from Alfred the Great. The writers of the time said that England was once more under a King of English race. They wrote: "Thou art a son of the most glorious Empress Matilda, whose mother was Matilda, daughter of Margaret, Queen of Scotland, whose father was Edward, son of King Edmund Ironside, who was great-grandson of the noble King Alfred."

3. When Henry landed in England, attended by

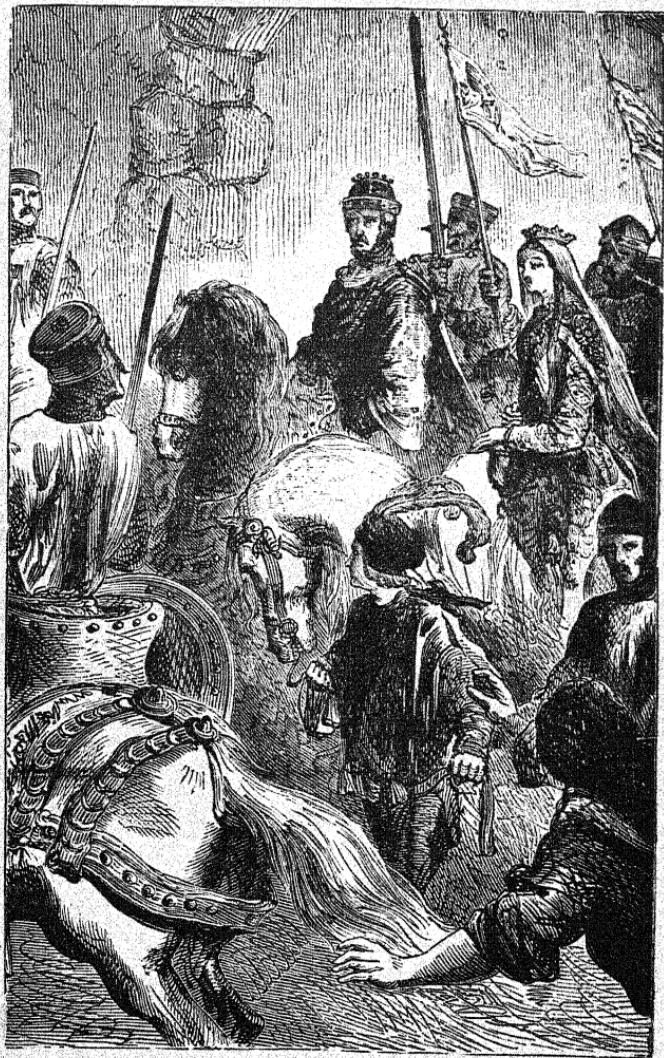
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many nobles and knights, the people flocked to meet him. Amidst the joyous shouts of his subjects he rode into Winchester, Queen Eleanor riding at his side. Up to this time Winchester had been the capital of England, but in this reign London was made the capital.

4. **A Powerful King.** — Henry was the most powerful sovereign of his age. He was not only King of England, but he had more land in France than in England. In fact, he ruled over a greater part of France than did the French King himself. From his mother and grandfather he inherited England and Normandy. From his father he inherited one part of France; and his wife, Eleanor, brought him another large portion of that country.

5. **A Real King.** — Henry was not only powerful in that he was the monarch of wide lands on both sides of the English Channel, but he could govern and make his position as King felt throughout the nation. Stephen had only worn the crown and sat on the throne, but Henry was a real King. He loved to put down those who did not use their power well, and to raise up men from nothing.

6. **Good Government.** — One of the first things that Henry had to do was to secure order among the barons. To gain their support, Stephen had allowed them to build strong castles on their lands, and to do pretty much as they liked. Henry began by forcing them to pull down their castles and to obey the laws. At his command a royal army swept through the kingdom, seizing and destroying the strongholds of the proud nobles.



HENRY THE SECOND AND HIS QUEEN ENTERING WINCHESTER.

7. You will remember that William the Conqueror had given lands to his followers, on condition that they should help him with all their fighting men in time of war. Henry saw that the keeping of so many soldiers by the barons brought about many quarrels in the land when the country was at peace. He therefore told the great land-owners that they might pay him money, if they liked, as rent for their land, instead of giving their services in time of war. This change enabled the King to hire soldiers when he needed them. The barons, with fewer fighting men at their command, grew less dangerous. The farmers, too, who held land from the barons were able to stay at home and attend to their crops, even when the country was at war.

8. **Thomas Becket.**—The most famous man in Henry the Second's reign was Thomas Becket (or à Becket). He was the son of Gilbert Becket, Mayor of London, a rich merchant, who had come from Normandy and settled in this country. He was clever, handsome, gay, and well educated. Archbishop Theobald, who was Henry's chief adviser, brought Becket under the King's notice; and Henry appointed him Chancellor—that is, keeper of the royal seal—and made him tutor to his sons.

9. **Church Reform.**—The Conqueror had given the clergy law courts of their own; but Henry found that this plan did much harm. If a priest did wrong, he could not be punished by any of the King's judges, and the sentence passed upon him by his bishop was often much less severe than it ought

to have been. If a layman (a man not a priest) committed murder, the King's court sentenced him to be hanged; but if a priest committed the same crime, he was only sentenced to be shut up in a monastery



HENRY THE SECOND.

for life. The people said that this was not fair, and that every one should receive the same punishment for the same crime. Then, many of the clergy

in Henry's day were idle, wicked men, and Henry did not wish them to be shielded when they did wrong. He wanted to make a law that all men should be treated alike.

10. Henry and Becket: 1162.—While the King was trying to lessen the power of the clergy Archbishop Theobald died, and Henry put Becket into his place. He did this because he thought that Becket would help to make the Church better. "You will soon hate me as much as you love me now," said the new Archbishop to the King. Such was the case, for Becket's whole manner of life changed. He left off his gay dress, wore a horse-hair shirt next his skin, partook of the plainest food, and busied himself only with the affairs of the Church.

11. The Constitutions of Clarendon: 1164.—He very soon showed Henry that he meant to take the side of the clergy against him. The quarrel between the King and the Archbishop became a very bitter one. A meeting of barons and clergy was held at Clarendon, in Wiltshire, where it was decided that clergymen charged with crime were to be tried in the King's courts, and, if found guilty, were to receive the same punishment as others; that no clergyman should leave the country without the King's consent; that the clergy should hold their lands, and act, and be treated, as tenants; and that bishops and archbishops should do homage for their lands before receiving their appointments.

12. For a time Becket gave way; but the quarrel began again, and he had to leave the country. Hearing that his kinsmen and friends were sent

into exile, and that the lands which he had held as Archbishop had been given by the King to others, he excommunicated these persons—that is, he cut them off from the Church.



MURDER OF BECKET.

13. Becket's Return.—After six years Becket consented to return to England. While he had been away Prince Henry, the King's eldest son, had been crowned at Westminster by the Archbishop of York, assisted by the Bishops of London and Salisbury. By custom, if not by law, Becket alone as Archbishop of Canterbury had the right to perform this ceremony. Great was his anger to find himself passed over, and he had no sooner reached England

than he excommunicated the offending prelates. At this time Henry was in Normandy, and when news was brought to him of the doings of Becket, he cried out in a moment of passion, "Will no one rid me of this turbulent priest ?"

14. **The Murder of Becket:** 1170.—Four knights, wishful to please the King, crossed the Channel in haste and hurried to Canterbury. There, in his own cathedral, they murdered the Archbishop. He died bravely, and was regarded as a martyr who had been slain in defence of the Church. For hundreds of years afterwards he was honoured as a saint. His shrine became the most famous in England, and thousands of pilgrims from all parts of the land went in crowds to pray before his tomb.

15. **Henry's Troubles.**—The King was now afraid that the English people would rise against him. The barons, indeed, did rebel, hoping that the murder of Becket would cause all Henry's old friends to forsake him. One trouble followed another. William the Lion, King of Scotland, attacked the northern counties of England. Prince Henry, the King's eldest son, was resolved at once to have either England or Normandy to rule over. Geoffrey and Richard were quite as determined to have a share of the King's lands in France. Their mother, who was a wicked woman, did all that she could to encourage them. The King of France also took their part.

16. **Henry's Penance.**—The King sent messengers to the Pope to explain how Becket's death had taken place. He then went himself to Canterbury,

where he knelt before Becket's tomb, and allowed the monks to scourge him with knotted cords. He did this partly from real sorrow for the murder, and partly to win back the support of his people, who were willing to believe that Henry had not intended to cause Becket's death.

17. **William the Lion.**—Soon after this Henry received news that William the Lion, while on a raid into England, had been made prisoner at Alnwick Castle. Before the Scottish King was allowed to return home he was forced to do homage to Henry, and so own that he held the crown of Scotland by the will of the English King.

18. **Conquest of Ireland: 1172.**—Henry conquered a part of Ireland, and since his reign that country has been regarded as belonging to England. Ireland was divided into small states or kingdoms, as England had been in the days of the Old English Kings. The chiefs or kings of these states were constantly quarrelling with each other. One of them asked the English King to help him. Henry gave the required help, and in return took as much of the country as he could for his own. He called his son John "Lord of Ireland."

19. **The Death of Henry.**—Henry's first and second sons died before their father. They had given him much trouble, and had been joined against him by Richard, the third son. John, the youngest, had always been his father's favorite. In 1189 there was war between France and England, and Prince Richard joined with France. Henry was ill and weary, and he asked to see the names of his own

subjects who had fought against him. At the head of the list was the name of "Earl John." This seemed to break the father's heart. He was heard to say, "Now let all things go as they will, I care no more for myself or the world." He died two days afterwards.

20. Henry's Character.—Henry was clever, hard-working, and so restless that he hardly ever sat down except to meals, and not always then. He took great delight in the most violent exercise on horseback, hunting or hawking. He had always in his hands his bow and arrows, his sword or hunting-spear, save when he was busy in council or over his books. He was also learned far beyond the learning of the day. He ruled wisely and strictly, and with so much justice that we look back to him as one of our best Kings. He might have done even more for his country than he did if he had had a better wife. One writer calls her "the firebrand of his family." She caused him so much unhappiness and trouble, that he was forced to keep her in confinement during the latter part of her life.

21. RICHARD I

1189 to 1199: 10 years.

1. Richard Cœur de Lion.—Richard the First was the third son of Henry the Second. The story of his reign has little to do with English history. He was only twice in England, and passed altogether only a few months in the country during his ten

years' reign. He also spent the money of his subjects in foreign wars. He was so brave in battle that he was called *Cœur de Lion*, or the Lion-Hearted.



RICHARD THE FIRST.

2. The Third Crusade: 1190.—The great business of Richard's life was to take part in the Third Crusade. He was a born soldier, and his great love of adventure made him wish to go to Palestine at the head

of an army to fight for the Holy Sepulchre. As soon as he was crowned he began to sell everything he could, that he might have money for the Crusade. Any one who wished to be a bishop or a judge, or to hold any other post, had to pay a sum of money to the King. Richard said that he would sell London if he could find a buyer; and he gave up for ten thousand marks the homage which his father had forced from the Scottish King.

3. **Richard Abroad.**—Richard fought bravely in the Holy Land, and gained some victories; but he could not take Jerusalem. He spoiled all the good that he might have done by constant quarrels with those about him. On his way to Palestine he quarrelled with the King of France, who was also a Crusader; and while in Palestine he offended the Duke of Austria, who never forgave him.

4. **Making peace with Salàdin,** the leader of the Turks, Richard sailed for England. He was wrecked on the southern shore of the Gulf of Venice, and started to cross the Continent in the dress of a pilgrim, under the name of Hugh the merchant. It is said that the appearance of his page in gloves, then a mark of the highest rank, betrayed the secret, and led to Richard's capture by Leopold, Duke of Austria, who sold him to the Emperor of Germany. Richard was kept a prisoner for more than a year. At length the English people paid the Emperor one hundred and fifty thousand marks to set their sovereign at liberty.

5. **John.**—Prince John spent much of the time of his brother's absence in trying to seize upon



RICHARD IN THE HOLY LAND.

Richard's possessions, and the King of France helped him. He secured the King's castles, and said that Richard would never return. He even tried to persuade the Emperor of Germany to keep the King a prisoner, and to ask for a much larger ransom, hoping that the people would not be able

to pay it. Richard forgave his brother when he came home, but took away his lands and castles.

6. **Death of Richard.**—The last years of Richard's life were spent in fighting with the King of France. He fell at last in an unjust attempt to seize upon the Castle of Chaluz. Its owner, one of his own vassals, had found some treasure, and offered Richard half. Richard declared he would have it all; and in besieging the castle he was wounded by an arrow. A few days later he died of the wound.

7. **Richard's Character.**—Though brave, Richard had a fierce temper, which caused him to do many cruel things. He had been a bad son, and was too fond of adventure to make a good King. He was generous and forgiving, and could be cool and patient when it suited his purpose. He was a strange mixture of courage, kindness, meanness, and greed.

22. JOHN.

1199 to 1216: 17 years.

1. **John.**—John was the brother of Richard, and the youngest son of Henry the Second, but he was not the rightful heir to the throne. Geoffrey, an older brother, had left a son named Arthur, now a boy of twelve. The people of England gave the throne to John, because they felt that the country would be ruled better by a man than by a boy. This reign was taken up mainly with three great quarrels—with France, the Pope, and the barons. By his quarrel with the King of France

John lost the greater part of his lands in that country. By his quarrel with the Pope he was humbled to the earth. By his quarrel with the barons he was forced to grant England the Great Charter.



JOHN.

2. Arthur's Death.—The French subjects of the English King took Arthur's side. There was war between the uncle and nephew for three years,

when Arthur was taken prisoner and shut up in the Castle of Rouen. The young prince was never seen again. It is said that he was murdered by his uncle, but no one knows how the youth died. The King of France, who was John's over-lord in that country, ordered him to come to Paris to be tried for the murder of Arthur. This John refused to do. War followed, and John lost the greater part of the French lands which had been held by English Kings. After this Normandy, which had belonged to England since the Conquest, was ruled over by the Kings of France.

3. **A Bad King.**—The King was always in want of money, and he did not care how he got it. Barons, small land-owners, and working people were all badly treated, and the Jews suffered fearful things at his hands. One rich Jew, who would not give the King as much money as he asked for, was put into prison, and had a tooth pulled out every day, until, when he had lost nine, he gave in, and let the King have all the money he wanted. To make matters worse, John kept about him a large number of hired foreign soldiers, ready to be used against his people if they rebelled.

4. **John and the Pope.**—In 1205 the Archbishop of Canterbury died, and the monks of Canterbury set about choosing another. They had the right to do this, but John forced them to elect a man of his choosing. When the matter came before the Pope, he took neither the priest wanted by the monks nor the one chosen by the King, but bade the monks elect Stephen Langton, a good



KING JOHN AND PRINCE ARTHUR.

and learned Englishman, who had risen to be a cardinal, and was at that time living in Rome. John was very angry when he heard this, and he refused to allow Archbishop Langton to enter England. The Pope then laid the kingdom under an Interdict. This means that all the churches were to be shut up, and no public services were to

be held. For six years that state of things lasted. There was no public preaching, no prayers said in the churches, no giving of the Holy Communion, and no funeral service read over the dead.

5. John appeared to care little for the Pope. He began to seize upon Church lands and Church money, which he spent in wars in Ireland, Scotland, and Wales, and he treated the clergy worse than ever. At last the Pope took another step. He excommunicated John—that is, he cut him off from the Church, and said that he was to be no longer counted a Christian. People must treat him as if he were a heathen, and have nothing to do with him, and no subject need obey him. John cared no more for this than he did for the Interdict. One priest who left his service was put to death. After that no other priest dared follow his example. Five bishops fled out of the kingdom rather than resist John.

6. Then the Pope declared that John should no longer be King of England, and he called upon Philip of France to dethrone him. John had a large army of hired soldiers, and at first thought he should be able to drive away the invader; but he soon found that his own barons were plotting against him, and that Englishmen everywhere would rather take the side of the Pope and the French King than suffer any longer from his tyranny.

7. **John's Submission to the Pope.**—To make peace with the Pope, John welcomed Langton as Archbishop. He then knelt before the Pope's legate, took off his crown, laid it humbly at his feet, and swore to be a vassal or servant of Rome. Pan-

dulph, the legate, then replaced the crown on John's head. All England was filled with shame. No English King had ever done homage to any man for his throne, and now the crown itself belonged to



KING JOHN AND THE POPE'S LEGATE.

the Pope. The new Archbishop, priest though he was, disliked the homage to the Pope, and he and the clergy took sides with the barons and the people. While the King was at war with France, the Archbishop and the barons made their plans to

force him to restore the freedom which the country had enjoyed in the past.

8. *Magna Carta: 1215.*—In full armour the barons met the King at Christmas and at Easter, and claimed from him the keeping of Henry the First's charter. John held out as long as he could, but he found that few were with him. The whole nation was in arms. Clergy, barons, and people were for once united. On Sunday, June 15, 1215, in the meadow of Runnymede, on the Thames, near Windsor, John was forced to sign *Magna Carta*, or the Great Charter, which Langton and the barons had drawn up.

9. There was very little that was new in the Charter, but the rights of the poorest in the land were considered as well as those of the richer and greater folk. Of the sixty-three articles which it contained the three most important were—that no man was to be put in prison or punished by the King, except according to law; that justice should neither be sold, denied, nor delayed; and that no money was to be unjustly taken from any one for the King's use. The signing of the Great Charter showed that the nation was strong enough to force a bad King to do justice and show mercy. It was the beginning of English freedom, and declared that the country should be governed by law, and not by the will of any one man, who might happen to be good, but who might also, as in John's case, be a bad and cruel tyrant. So highly was this Charter valued, that in the course of the next two hundred years it was confirmed thirty-seven times; and on



KING JOHN SIGNING MAGNA CARTA.

the day that Charles the Second entered London after his exile, he was asked by the House of Commons to confirm it again.

10. **John's Anger.**—John was very angry because he had been forced to sign this paper; but he was more angry still when four-and-twenty barons were chosen to act as a council to see that he kept his promise. "Four-and-twenty over-kings" John called them in his fury. He had signed the Great Charter, and for the moment he was powerless; but he did not mean to keep his promise. The King secretly raised an army of foreign troops, with which he laid waste a part of the country; and the barons in despair asked Louis, the son of the French King, to come and rule over England. Louis came with an army; but the Pope took John's part, turned Langton out of Canterbury, and declared the Great Charter to be useless.

11. **Death of John: 1216.**—In the midst of great disorder in the land John died. He and his army, while crossing the sandy shores of the Wash, to meet the French under Louis, were surprised by the tide, and lost their baggage, the royal treasures, and even the crown itself. All this had such an effect on the King that it brought on a fever, of which he died in a few days.

12. **John's Character.**—John was altogether a bad man. He was the worst King that ever ruled over England, though he was clever enough to have done great things for the country if he had so wished. Of him the old record said, "He was a Knight without truth, a King without justice, and a Christian without faith."



CROWNED WITH A BRACELET.

23. HENRY III.

1216 to 1272: 56 years.

1. **Henry the Third.**—Henry, the son of John, was only nine years old when he came to the throne. No King of England had ever before begun to reign when a child. If he had had an uncle or a cousin older than himself, he would not have been chosen, but would have been passed over, as his

cousin Arthur had been in favour of his uncle, the late King.

2. **The Earl of Pembroke.**—The young King was crowned with his mother's golden bracelet in place of the lost crown; and the Earl of Pembroke was made governor of the King and kingdom. He was good and wise, but he was an old man, and died two years afterwards.

3. **Louis of France.**—Prince Louis was still in England, and he felt himself hardly used by the barons, who had asked him to come. Now that John was dead, they took the part of his son against the French prince; for they had no wish to see England become a part of France, as Normandy had at one time been a part of England. The French army was defeated at Lincoln, and Louis was obliged to go home again.

4. **Henry's Weakness.**—As Henry grew up it was seen that he would never make a good King. He was weak in character, and his word could not be depended on. Like his father, when he made promises he broke them; and like Edward the Confessor, he had no idea that he owed any duty to his country. Then he loved foreigners better than Englishmen. His mother's relations and his wife's relations from France had the highest places in the land given to them; and the English barons and clergy began to grumble.

5. **The Pope.**—Henry had begun his reign by doing homage to the Pope's legate, as his father had done; and the Pope treated England as if it really belonged to him, and sent for money whenever he

wanted it. Henry allowed him to tax the clergy, and sometimes even the rest of the people.

6. **The Parliament.**—Ever since the coming of the English, there had been a meeting of some kind held



HENRY THE THIRD

to talk over law-making and the concerns of the nation. It was at one time called the Witan. It now began to be called the Parliament, from

the French word *parler*, to speak. It was something like our present House of Lords; for no one had any idea that the common people had a right to make their voice heard in the Great Council of the nation. It was made up chiefly of barons, bishops, and abbots. The King had promised to rule according to the Great Charter which had been forced from his father, and it required him to call his Parliament together as often as he wanted money. This gave the Great Council more power than it had ever had before.

7. **Simon de Montfort.**—Things grew worse and worse with every year of Henry's reign. The King was willing enough to sign charters and make promises; but he never paid any heed to either his written or spoken word. The country was being drained of money, much of which went to the Pope and to the greedy swarms of foreigners who surrounded the King. The King's brother-in-law, Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, took the part of the people against the King. He loved England, and he set his mind to bring about order and peace. He was a brave soldier, and so good a man that he was often called Simon the Righteous.

8. **The Mad Parliament.**—In 1258 the barons, with Simon at their head, appeared in arms at a Parliament held at Oxford. There they made the King give up the government to a council of twenty-four barons, of whom he was to choose twelve, and they would choose the other twelve. They also said that he must agree to hold three Parliaments every year, to give the command of

the English fortresses to Englishmen, and to have a council always with him to give him advice. Henry was obliged to swear to obey these "Provisions of Oxford," as they were called. The King's friends spoke of this meeting of the barons as the Mad Parliament.

9. **The Battle of Lewes: 1264.**—After four years of disorder, the barons rose against the King, and civil war began. The chief reason for this war was, that Henry had sent to the Pope for leave to break the promises that he had made at Oxford. The Pope said he might do so; upon which the King seized the Tower of London, and sent out orders to the people of all the counties not to obey the barons' officers. Fifteen thousand Londoners joined Montfort. A few barons remained faithful to the King, who also had with him an army of foreign soldiers and his brave son Prince Edward. The two armies met at Lewes in Sussex, where the King was defeated and made prisoner. Prince Edward gave himself up soon afterwards.

10. **Simon as Regent.**—Earl Simon ruled in the King's name for more than a year. His government was good and strict, and the condition of the country improved. To make the Great Council represent the nation, Montfort called two men from each city, town, or borough, and two from each county, to join with the barons and clergy in the making of the laws. They were chosen by their fellow-citizens, and spoke in their name. This was the beginning of our present House of Commons. This assembly of the people met for more than three

hundred years in the chapter-house of Henry's Abbey of Westminster.

11. **The Battle of Evesham:** 1265.—A year after the battle of Lewes, Prince Edward escaped from his guards, and quickly gathered an army together. Many of the barons joined with him, for they had become jealous of Earl Simon, who fled into Wales. A little later he was surprised by the Prince at Evesham in Worcestershire. His little army was soon defeated, and he himself was slain.

12. **Death and Character of Henry.**—The country was at peace during the last years of Henry's life. He died in 1272, while his son was away taking part in the seventh Crusade. Henry had reigned fifty-six years—longer than any of our monarchs except George the Third. He was fond of music of art, and of poetry. He also rebuilt the greater part of Westminster Abbey as it now stands. He had not enough firmness to make a good King, and was too easily led by favourites.

13. **Notes of Progress.**—In this reign the manufacture of linen was begun, and coal mines were first worked at Newcastle. Roger Bacon, a monk, made some wonderful discoveries in science, and was said by the ignorant people of that time to be a worker of magic. He was kept in prison for many years, and deprived of books and writing materials. His principal work he called *Opus Majus*, or Greater Work. It was chiefly devoted to mathematics and the sciences.



DEPARTURE OF EDWARD AND ELEANOR ON THE SEVENTH CRUSADE.

24. EDWARD I.

1272-1307: 35 years.

1. **Edward the First.**—Edward, the eldest son of Henry the Third, was on his way home from the Holy Land when he heard of his father's death. He did not arrive till 1274, when he at once set about restoring order in his kingdom. Edward gathered round him the wisest men that he could find to help him to rule. He would not allow any law to be made without first consulting the people, to hear what they had to say against it. He used to say, "What concerns all should be approved of by all."

2. **New Laws.**—Among the many new laws made in this reign there are two important ones which should be remembered. The Statute of Mortmain, 1279, said that property consisting of houses and lands should not be made over to the Church without the consent of the King. This was because the Church already possessed large estates which did not pay taxes like other lands. This law received its name because Church property was said to be in *mortmain*, a word meaning "dead hand," since it always remained in the possession of the Church, and did not, like other lands, pass from hand to hand or from heir to heir. The Statute of Winchester, 1285, prevented the owner of an estate from selling it, and so kept it in the same family from one generation to another. Such estates were said to be entailed.

3. **The Conquest of Wales: 1282.**—Edward had a

great wish to rule over the whole of the British Isles. Wales had always been a troublesome neighbour, and it seemed to Edward that if he could



EDWARD THE FIRST.

make its laws and manage its affairs, it would be a very good thing both for Wales and for England. When Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, refused to do

homage to him for his country, Edward marched into Wales and defeated the Welsh. Llewellyn agreed to give up all his territory except Anglesey, and do homage to Edward. There was peace for a time. At length war broke out again. Llewellyn was killed in battle; and Edward brought Wales under English rule.

4. **The First English Prince of Wales: 1284.**—While staying at Caernarvon Castle in Wales, Edward's eldest son was born. The King showed him to the Welsh chiefs, telling them that here was a prince for them, born in their own land, who could not speak a word of English. The eldest son of the English sovereign has always since that day borne the title of Prince of Wales.

5. **Expulsion of the Jews: 1290.**—The Jews were at this time the chief, if not the only, money-lenders in England. Their rates of interest were very high; and as they often sold the goods and lands of their debtors to obtain repayment of the money lent, they were very unpopular. Up to this period they had been under the protection of the Kings of England. For this protection the Jews had to pay a tax on every Jew above fourteen years of age, and were also forced to give the King large sums of money. In this reign the hatred against them became so bitter, that the people demanded their banishment from the country. They were also charged with clipping the coin of the realm. Edward yielded to the wishes of the people, stripped the Jews of their possessions, and drove them, to the number of 16,000, out of the land. It was



THE FIRST ENGLISH PRINCE OF WALES.

not till the reign of Cromwell that they were allowed to live openly in England.

6. **War with Scotland.**—The kingdom of Scotland was at this time without a direct heir. Thirteen claimants for the crown appeared. Edward asserted his right to decide which of these should be King, because William the Lion had done homage to Henry the Second when the Scots were defeated at Alnwick in 1174. He met the claimants at Norham Castle, on the Tweed; but before deciding, he asked if the one to whom he gave the throne would own him as overlord, and be his man. All agreed to Edward's proposal. Before this, Scottish Kings had often done homage to the English King, saying, as they did so, that it was for lands held within the English borders. But the King of England, at the same time, always said that he accepted the homage as overlord of the Scottish kingdom.

7. **John Baliol.**—Edward at last decided that John Baliol was the rightful heir, because he was descended from the eldest of three sisters of the royal house of Scotland. Robert Bruce, who had the next best title to the crown, proposed that the kingdom should be divided between him and Baliol; but Edward refused this, saying that it would be against Scottish laws. Baliol then did homage; the country was given into his hands; Edward went south again; and for a time there was peace.

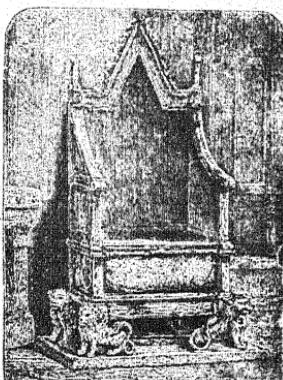
8. **Baliol Dethroned.**—Baliol found that it was no easy matter to satisfy the English King, and at length declared that he no longer regarded Edward as his overlord. He refused to attend Edward's Parliament at Newcastle, and at the same time seized upon Carlisle, and put to death a small body

of English soldiers. Edward then marched on Berwick, took the town, and put thousands of the citizens to the sword. After this he marched through Scotland, taking fortress after fortress; and making Baliol a prisoner, he sent him to London. Robert Bruce joined the English army, and the King placed a governor over Scotland.

9. **The Coronation Stone.**—The famous “Stone of Destiny,” the ancient coronation stone, on which Scottish Kings had always been crowned, was taken to England and made a part of the coronation chair in Westminster Abbey; and there it is to this day.

10. **William Wallace.**—War soon broke out again, for the Scots would not rest in peace under Edward’s overlordship. A patriot named William Wallace, a man of great size and strength, became their leader. He quickly gathered together an army, and defeated the English at the battle of Stirling Bridge. A year later he met Edward at the battle of Falkirk, and was there defeated. Wallace fled, and remained in hiding for several years; but he was at last betrayed by a false friend, taken to London, and hanged on Tower Hill.

11. **Robert the Bruce.**—In 1306 Scotland was roused by a new leader, Robert the Bruce, grandson



CORONATION CHAIR.
(Containing the Stone from Scone.)

of the Bruce who wished to be King when Baliol was chosen. He had been brought up at the English court, and was much liked by Edward. The three Bruces—grandfather, father, and son—had held lands in Yorkshire, and were barons in England as well as in Scotland. Having fled from the court of Edward, Bruce was crowned King of Scotland at Scone (*Shoon*). The news was carried to Edward, who, though ill, at once made ready to march against the Scottish King.

12. **Death of Edward.**—Edward never crossed the Border again. He became worse, and died at Burgh-on-Sands, near Carlisle. His last wish was that his bones should be carried at the head of the army till Scotland was overcome. This wish was not carried out. The dead King was at once buried in Westminster Abbey.

13. **Edward's Character.**—Edward, who had learned much from Simon de Montfort and from his father's mistakes, was a man of great courage and wisdom. Throughout his reign there was obedience to his good government. No baron dared disobey him or ill-treat the people. He was one of the best rulers England has ever had. He governed firmly and wisely, and was the first King who summoned a Parliament (in 1295) to help him in ruling the country. It consisted of a House of Commons, Lords, and the higher clergy.



25. EDWARD II.

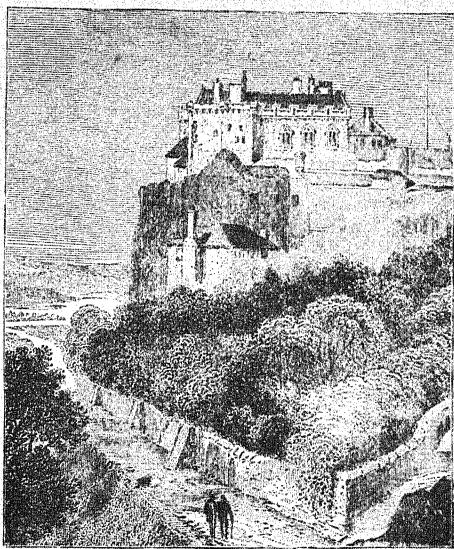
1307 to 1327: 20 years.

1. **Edward the Second.**—Edward the Second, son of Edward the First, was too fond of pleasure to go on with the war in Scotland, according to his father's wishes. He began to reign at the age of twenty-three; but in everything he was utterly different from his father, the great Edward.

2. **Edward's Favourites.**—Within a month of his father's death he sent for a man named Piers Gaveston, a Frenchman, whom the late King had banished; and this man he made regent of his kingdom while he went to France to marry the French King's daughter. Edward never tried to govern properly; and Parliament, in anger, took the power out of his hands, and appointed a committee of barons and bishops, who were called the Lords Ordainers, to manage the affairs of the kingdom. They banished Gaveston twice. When he returned the second time he was beheaded.

3. **The Battle of Bannockburn : 1314.**—During the first seven years of his reign Edward the Second did nothing to keep the power which his father had obtained in Scotland. Bruce had retaken castle after castle from the English, until at last only Stirling Castle, a strong fortress on the river Forth, remained in their hands. To prevent this castle from being retaken by Bruce, Edward collected a large army and set out to its relief. He met Bruce at Bannockburn, near Stirling, where one hundred thousand English troops were defeated by forty thousand Scots, and Edward had to flee for his life. After that Bruce reigned in peace, and Scotland was never again in danger of being conquered.

4. **New Favourites.**—Edward found new favourites in Hugh Le Despenser and his son. Then he quarrelled with his wife, who was a bad woman, and who wished to get the power into her own hands. She was assisted by Roger Mortimer, one of the leaders of the barons, and the sworn enemy



STIRLING CASTLE.

of the Despensers. The Queen and Parliament hanged the two Despensers, and sent the King a prisoner to Kenilworth Castle. It was then declared in Parliament that Edward was no longer King, and his son was placed on the throne.

5. **Death of the King.**—For about eight months the dethroned monarch was removed from prison to prison, until within the walls of Berkeley Castle, near Gloucester, he was put to death. One night fearful shrieks were heard, and next morning the people were shown the body of the dead King.

26. EDWARD III.

1327 to 1377: 50 years.

1. **Edward the Third.**—Edward the Third, the son of Edward the Second, became King while his father was a prisoner in Kenilworth Castle. His mother and her favourite, Lord Mortimer, were the real rulers of the land, for the young King was only fifteen years of age. At the end of three years Edward saw that much wrong was being done in his name; and he suddenly seized his mother and Mortimer at Nottingham Castle, and took the power into his own hands. The King's mother was kept a prisoner for the rest of her life, and Mortimer was hanged at Tyburn.

2. **Halidon Hill: 1333.**—In the first year of Edward's reign war began again with Scotland. Edward besieged Berwick, and the Scots who tried to relieve it were defeated at Halidon Hill in 1333. Berwick fell into the hands of the English, and since then it has been counted as part of England.

3. **The Hundred Years' War: 1338.**—In this reign war was begun between England and France, which lasted, off and on, for a hundred years. It caused great misery to both nations, and no good came of it in the end. The war began in this way: First of all, the King of England had lands in France which the French King wanted, though they had never once been part of the French kingdom.

4. Secondly, the people of Flanders asked Edward to help them against the French King, who

was treating them very cruelly. They knew that he was only waiting for a chance to conquer them, and they chose rather to fall into the hands of the English. Flanders was very useful to England at



EDWARD THE THIRD.

that time. The people, who were called Flemings, were clever in spinning wool and making it into cloth. This was before we had such towns as Leeds,

and Bradford, with their mills and warehouses. The wool grown on the backs of English sheep went to Flanders to be made into cloth. If the French King seized upon Flanders, the great and growing trade between England and that country would be stopped, and many people would be thrown out of work.

5. Edward was right in fighting for the wool trade, and in defending his own province in France. But he went further than that. He claimed to be King of France. He said he had a better right to the throne than Philip the Sixth, who was then King. Philip was the last King's cousin; but Edward was the son of the sister of that King. The French law had always been that no woman should succeed to the throne, and no man could have any claim through his mother. This Edward must have known.

6. **The Black Prince at Crecy : 1346.**—Edward was a great soldier. His first victory was at Sluys, in a sea-fight; and his second at a village called Crecy, in the north of France. Cannon were first used in this battle. The King took no part in the fight, in order that his son, Edward, the Black Prince, so called from the colour of his armour, a boy of sixteen, should have the glory of the victory. There was a fearful slaughter. When all was over, more than thirty thousand Frenchmen lay dead upon the field.

7. **The Prince of Wales's Feathers and Motto.**—John, the blind King of Bohemia, who fought on the side of the French, was slain. The Black Prince found his banner on the battle-field. Since then his



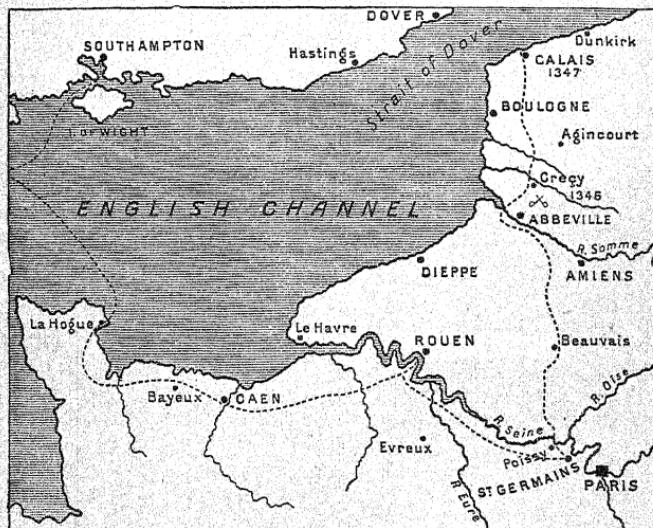
THE BLACK PRINCE FINDING THE BANNER.

crest and motto—three ostrich feathers, with the German words *Ich dien*, “I serve”—have been the badge of the Princes of Wales.

8. War with Scotland.—A few months after that, David the Second of Scotland invaded England while

Edward was in France. The knights and gentlemen of the northern shires called out their forces, and defeated him at Nevil's Cross in Durham, and carried him a prisoner to the Tower of London.

9. **The Siege of Calais.**—When Queen Philippa crossed the Channel to take the news of this victory to Edward she found him besieging Calais, and very angry with the people for having held out so long.



About the time of Philippa's arrival, famine had forced the townspeople to submit to the English King, who required six of the chief citizens to come to him bare-headed and bare-footed, with ropes round their necks, and the keys of Calais in their hands. In his anger the King ordered the six men to be put to death. Knight after knight begged in vain the lives of these poor men; for Edward had made up his mind

to punish somebody for the money and men it had cost him to take Calais. "Call the headsman," he said. "They of Calais have made so many of my men die, that they must die themselves!"

10. When the Queen heard this, she knelt before the King and entreated him with tears to spare their lives. Edward granted her request, saying, "Lady, I would rather you had been otherwhere; you pray so tenderly that I dare not refuse you; and though I do it against my will, nevertheless take them, I give them to you." Edward then drove most of the people out of the town, and filled it with Englishmen. It remained English for more than two hundred years.

11. **The Battle of Poictiers : 1356.**—Ten years after the battle of Crecy, the Black Prince won another great victory at Poictiers. Philip of France was dead, and his son John was now King. He took the field with an army of sixty thousand men against the Black Prince, who defeated him with only sixteen thousand. King John was taken prisoner and led in triumph to London, where he was kept a fellow-captive with David of Scotland. The Scottish King was set free in 1357, on payment of a large sum of money; but the French King died a prisoner in London. By the treaty of Bretigny in 1360 Edward gave up all claim to the French crown.

12. **The Labourers.**—The war had done much harm to the English people. They had found it so easy to plunder cities, that they became greedy of money, and began to live less simply than they

had done before. The land-owners who came back from the war did not treat their labourers well. These labourers were called villeins or serfs. They had small plots of land, for which they had up to this time paid rent in work; but now they were asked to pay in money. There were also free labourers, who did not belong to any landlord, but they were paid very little for their work.

13. **The Black Death: 1349.**—While the French war was going on, an awful plague swept through England called the Black Death. By it more than a third of the whole nation perished. Those who remained had so much more work to do that the labourers began to ask for higher wages, and a struggle began between masters and workmen. Parliament took up the matter, and made a law which forbade any labourer asking higher wages than he had received before the Black Death.

14. **Changes in the Laws.**—A law was made to forbid the use of the French language in the law courts. Another law said that the Pope should not put foreign priests into English churches, and should no longer claim tribute from England. The barons and bishops at this time began to sit in a different room from the members of Parliament elected by the people—one being a House of Lords, and the other a House of Commons.

15. **The Good Parliament: 1376.**—The Black Prince came home from foreign wars ill and disappointed. His father was growing feeble, and could neither fight nor govern. Queen Philippa was dead; so was her third son Lionel. John of Gaunt, Edward's fourth

son, was ruling the country, but not well. In a Parliament, called afterwards the Good Parliament, the Commons ventured to undo some of John's work, and to accuse the men whom he had put into office of cheating the people and of wasting the nation's money. The Black Prince attended this Parliament to help the Commons against his brother. This is perhaps the best thing he ever did for his country, though it is not remembered like the victories of Crecy and Poictiers. In 1376 the Black Prince died of an illness caught while fighting in Spain.

16. **The Death and Character of Edward.**—The King died just a year after the death of the Black Prince. He had reigned fifty years. He was a brave man, an able ruler, and the most powerful prince of his time in Europe. His wonderful victories, which caused his reign to be remembered, placed him in the first rank of conquerors. But his wars with France and Scotland were unjust in their object; and after having caused great suffering, he at last found that the crowns of these kingdoms were beyond his reach.

17. **The Woolsack.**—Up to this time English wool had been sent to the Flemish cities of Ghent and Bruges to be woven into cloth. In this reign Flemish workmen established woollen factories in England, and laid the foundation of one of our greatest industries; and wool was regarded as one of the chief sources of our national wealth. To this day a square crimson bag filled with wool, called the "Woolsack," is the seat of the Lord Chancellor of England in the House of Lords.

27 RICHARD II.

1377 to 1399: 22 years.

1. **Richard the Second.**—Richard the Second, the son of the Black Prince, was the grandson of Edward the Third. As he was only eleven years of age when he became King, a council of nine of the chief men of the country was chosen to rule in his name.

2. **John of Gaunt.**—The chief power was in the hands of the King's uncle, John of Gaunt (or Ghent), as he was named from the place of his birth. His father, the late King, had made him Duke of Lancaster, and he had much land and was very rich. He and his brothers carried on the war with France, but lost more than they gained; and the people at home were so heavily taxed that they began to complain.

3. **Wat Tyler.**—At this time a new tax, called the Poll or Head Tax, was laid on the people. Every person over fifteen years of age had to pay one shilling, which was a large sum in those days, for the wages of a day-labourer was only about a penny. The tax-gatherers were never made welcome by the people; and when one of them behaved very badly in the house of Wat Tyler, he killed the man on the spot. No sooner was this known than thousands of peasants in Essex and Kent rose against the Government, and, with Wat Tyler and a priest named Jack Straw at their head, marched to London. On the way they did much harm, destroying property, and killing those of a higher rank whom they thought to be their enemies.

4. The young King surprised every one by his courage and presence of mind. He was only sixteen, but he rode out to meet the great mob of rioters, and asked them what they wanted. Wat Tyler



RICHARD THE SECOND.

began to speak to the King, when the Mayor of London, who was with Richard, and who thought Tyler was talking roughly, struck him down with

his dagger. It was a moment of danger for the King. There was a roar of anger from the people. Richard at once rode bravely towards them, saying, "I will be your captain." He led them out of London, talked quietly to them, promised to give them charters of freedom, and sent them home. The King was not allowed to keep his promises, even if he had wished to do so. A large number of the rioters were put to death, and the land-owners ill-treated the poor labourers as before.

5. **Battle of Otterburn:** 1388.—The ill-feeling between the English and the Scots had not altogether died down. Those who lived near the Border, on both sides, often crossed over to plunder, and sometimes a battle was fought which was heard of beyond their own neighbourhood. One of these was the battle of Otterburn, which was fought in 1388, between the Scots under Douglas, and the English under Percy. The English were defeated, and Percy was taken prisoner; but Douglas was slain.

6. **Richard's Government.**—The King's uncles—John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster; Edmund, Duke of York; and Thomas, Duke of Gloucester—did all that they could to prevent him from taking part in the government. They treated him like a child, and never tried to give him any training for his high position. He was not allowed to govern until he was nearly twenty-two years of age, when he insisted upon being free from their guardianship.

7. For nine years the young King ruled wisely. He made a visit to Ireland, and treated the people with kindness. Instead of going on with the



BATTLE OF OTTERBURN.

French war, he made a truce for twenty-eight years with the King of France, and married his daughter. At length Richard found himself strong enough to punish those who had ill-treated him during his youth. One thing above all others he had never forgiven. Some of his friends had been charged

with treason, and hanged. Neither the tears nor the prayers of the young King had been able to move his uncle, the Duke of Gloucester. Now Gloucester was discovered plotting against the King. He was sent to Calais, where he died a fortnight afterwards. It was said that he had been murdered.

8. **Richard's Troubles.**—When Richard had got rid of his old enemies, he began to take more of the government into his own hands. He did not call Parliament together, but he taxed the people heavily, and constantly meddled with the judges in performing their duty. Though he was right in many things, the barons were angry with him because he liked peace better than war. Land-owners were not pleased because he tried to protect the labourers; and the clergy were against him because he refused to punish those who did not agree with them.

9. **The Lollards.**—At this time there was a body of people called the Lollards. They were the followers of a good and learned priest, a teacher at Oxford, who did all that he could to make the Church purer and better. His name was John Wyclif. He is often called the "first Protestant," because he protested against the Pope's having so much power in England. He preached boldly, and wrote many tracts in the English language. The best thing that he did was to translate the Bible into English. No one knew how to print at this time, but a great many copies were written out by hand and spread over the country. The cost of such a book in manuscript (writing) was so great

that only the rich could afford to buy a complete volume. Many, however, gave large sums for a few chapters of the Word of God.

10. Then Wyclif sent out priests to preach the gospel everywhere, and to teach men that they must do their duty; "for," said he, "rich and poor, great and small, are all alike in the sight of God." Wyclif was often in great danger of his life; but John of Gaunt protected him, and he died in peace, an old man, in his parish of Lutterworth. The word Lollard came from the Old English word *lollen*, to sing or to babble. The enemies of Wyclif called them in scorn "idle babbler," or "psalm singers." Richard's first wife was very kind to them. The Earl of Salisbury was at their head, but the greater part of them were working people.

11. Chaucer.—Since the days of Caedmon, an Old English writer, there had not been a poet of any note; but now there arose a great poet named Geoffrey Chaucer, whom we call the "father of English poetry." He wrote the "Canterbury Tales," a series of stories told by thirty pilgrims on their way to the grave of Becket at Canterbury. From his description of the pilgrims we learn much about the people and the customs of the times. Langland, who wrote a great poem, "The Vision of Piers Plowman," lived in this reign.

12. Fall of Richard.—Richard's cousin, Henry Bolingbroke, who was Duke of Hereford, and son of John of Gaunt, quarrelled with the Duke of Norfolk, another powerful nobleman. The two dukes arranged



GEOFFREY CHAUCER, THE "FATHER OF ENGLISH POETRY."

to settle their quarrel by combat. The King said he would watch the fight, to see fair play ; but just as it was about to begin, he changed his mind, forbade the combat, and ordered the two nobles to leave the country. He said that Norfolk must be banished for life, but that his cousin Bolingbroke might return in six years.

13. This was unjust, for neither of them had been found guilty of any crime according to law. Soon after this John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, died ; and the King seized upon his uncle's lands, instead of letting them go to Bolingbroke, the rightful heir. This brought Bolingbroke home again. When he landed, thousands of people flocked to join him ;

for he had always been a favourite, and the people were tired of Richard.

14. Death of Richard.—Richard was in Ireland when his cousin arrived in England. Bolingbroke not only claimed his father's property, but he also said that the crown belonged to him. Parliament deposed Richard, as it had, many years before, deposed his great-grandfather, Edward the Second. The crown was given to Henry ; and, like Edward, Richard died in prison. In the following year he was murdered in Pontefract Castle.

HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

(THREE KINGS.)

- | | |
|---|----------------------|
| 1. HENRY IV. (<i>Bolingbroke</i>), cousin..... | 1399-1413: 14 years. |
| 2. HENRY V. (<i>Monmouth</i>), son..... | 1413-1422: 9 years. |
| 3. HENRY VI. (<i>Windsor, Red Rose</i>), son..... | 1422-1461: 39 years. |
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28. HENRY IV.

1399 to 1413: 14 years.

1. **Henry the Fourth.**—Henry was the son of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, the fourth son of Edward the Third. Though his cousin Richard, from whom he had taken the throne, had left no children, Henry was not the heir to the throne. There was a child of eleven years of age, a great-grandson of Lionel (Edward the Third's third son), Edmund Mortimer, Earl of March.

2. Edmund was, however, set aside; but his name must be remembered, for the passing over of his claim in favour of Henry explains the cause of the War of the Roses. The new King was hardly seated on the throne when a plot was discovered to release Richard from prison and win back for him his lost crown. The friends of the captive monarch were made prisoners, the rebellion was crushed, and Richard put to death.

3. **Homildon Hill: 1402.**—The Scots refused to acknowledge Henry as King of England. So he invaded Scotland with a powerful army, advanced as far as Leith, and burned the town. After that Percy, Earl of Northumberland, and his son Henry (called Hotspur from his fiery spirit) defeated the

Scots at Nesbit Moor and at Homildon Hill, where Earl Percy took prisoners the Earl of Douglas and the Earl of Fife, a grandson of the Scottish King.



HENRY THE FOURTH.

King Henry called upon Percy to hand these prisoners over to him. Percy refused, and this brought about a quarrel between him and the King. Though the

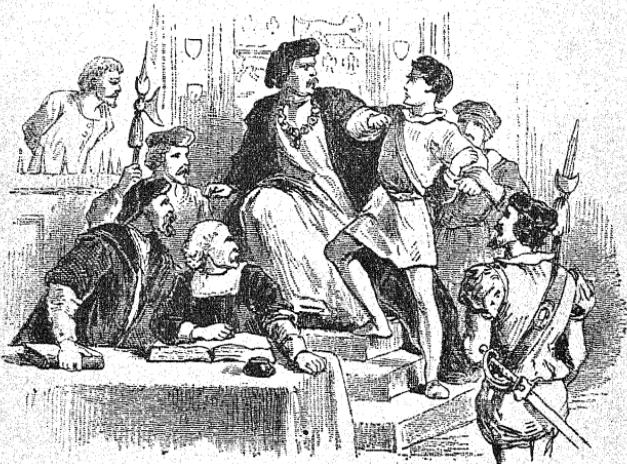
Percy family had been active in helping Henry to obtain the throne, and had done good service in defending the borders, they now turned against the King, and took the part of his enemies.

4. **The Battle of Shrewsbury : 1403.**—There was a rising of the Welsh, under Owen Glendower, a descendant of the old Welsh princes, joined by the Scots under the Earl of Douglas, and the Percies of Northumberland. They were defeated in a battle at Shrewsbury, where Hotspur was killed and Douglas taken prisoner.

5. **Prince James of Scotland.**—In the midst of this quarrelling an English ship took prisoner the little son of the Scottish King, who was being sent to France for his education. Henry jestingly said that the Prince could be as well taught in England as anywhere else; and so he was brought up at the English court. He became a scholar, a soldier, and a gentleman. He learned everything which a prince in those days was expected to know; and he married an English lady, John of Gaunt's grand-daughter. He remained in England nineteen years, when he returned to Scotland in 1424 and reigned as James the First.

6. **The Parliament.**—Knowing that the throne was not his by right, Henry was obliged to be friendly with both the Church and the Parliament. When he asked for money, Parliament took care not to give him any unless he promised something in return. In this way their power grew much greater than it had been before. The King and the House of Lords were at last forced to let the House of Commons decide how much money the King should get.

7. **The Lollards.**—Wyclif's followers, the Lollards as they were called, had been protected by the late King; and as Henry was afraid of all who had been friendly with his cousin Richard, he was quite ready to put down these people when the clergy asked him to do so. Not only were the clergy against the Lollards, the Parliament also disliked them, because they preached that all men were equal. Accordingly a law was made, that those who would not change their belief should be burned alive.



PRINCE HENRY AND THE JUDGE.

8. **The First Martyrs: 1401.**—The first man burned to death as a heretic in England was William Sawtre, a priest who had gone to London from Norfolk, eager to teach and preach. He suffered death at the stake in Smithfield. John Badby was burned to death in the presence of the Prince of Wales, who offered the

martyr his life and a sum of money if he would give up his belief; but Badby refused, and died. The Earl of Salisbury had been put to death at the beginning of Henry's reign, and the leader of the Lollards was Sir John Oldcastle, one of the foremost soldiers of the day.

9. **Henry, Prince of Wales.**—The conduct of the Prince of Wales caused the King much sorrow in the latter part of his life. He was surrounded by a number of wild companions, who often led him into wicked and foolish actions. It is said that the Prince was once sent to prison by the Chief Justice, whom he had struck in open court, for refusing to set free one of his companions.

10. **The Death and Character of Henry.**—Towards the close of his reign, the King's health failed. He was subject to fits, and died at the early age of forty-seven. During his last illness he caused his crown to be set on a pillow at his bed's head. Here the Prince found it, and thinking that his father was dead, he put on the crown, and then carried it for safety to another room. When the King awoke from his deep sleep he asked for the crown, and the Prince restored it, and begged to be forgiven. Henry was an able ruler, and, had he succeeded to the throne by a just title, he might have been ranked as one of the greatest of English monarchs. His peace of mind was destroyed by jealousy, and he was so unhappy that in after years Shakespeare, in one of his plays, put into Henry the Fourth's mouth the words, "Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown."



PRINCE HENRY AND THE CROWN

29. HENRY V.

1413 to 1422: 9 years.

1. Henry the Fifth.—Henry the Fifth was the son of Henry the Fourth. The real heir to the throne, Edmund, Earl of March, was now about twenty years of age. Instead of being afraid of him, Henry gave him all the estates which belonged to him. He also gave to Hotspur's son the earldom of Northumberland, which his father had lost when he rebelled against Henry the Fourth. Henry made a much better King than his past life had led people to expect. It is said that when he succeeded to the throne he at once called together his former wild companions, told them that he intended to lead a better life, and forbade their appearance in his presence till they should follow his example.

2. The Lollards.—In spite of the severe laws against the Lollards, their opinions spread very fast. Sir John Oldcastle, or Lord Cobham of Kent, their leader, was a member of Parliament, and a good soldier, and yet he was taken at last and sent to the Tower. Henry tried in vain to persuade his friend to give up his faith. Cobham escaped from the Tower, and a great many Lollards met with him near London.

3. Henry thought that it was the beginning of a revolt, and that they were going to destroy "himself and his brothers;" so he broke up the meeting with his troops, sent orders to the magistrates to seize upon the Lollards everywhere, and caused a number of them to be put to death. Lord Cobham

was taken prisoner some years afterwards in Wales, and burned to death in 1417.

4. **The French War renewed.**—Henry renewed the



HENRY THE FIFTH.

old claim which Edward the Third had made on the French crown. At this time the King of France, Charles the Sixth, was out of his mind; and the

French lords were quarrelling fiercely with each other as to which of them should be at the head of the state. These disorders in France gave Henry a chance to interfere, and try to make good his claim. He began the war by taking Harfleur, a strong fortress on the right bank of the river Seine. Then, with an army reduced to less than one-half its former number by want and sickness, he set out for Calais. He took the same path as that by which the troops of Edward the Third had marched to victory at Crecy.

5. **Battle of Agincourt: 1415.**—On his way to Calais, he was met at Agincourt by a French army of sixty thousand men. The English now numbered about nine thousand; but Crecy was not far distant, and the memory of that victory stirred every heart. The ground was wet with rain when, in the early morning, the English began the attack, and the French horsemen could not press forward. All the time the English archers, the best in the world, poured upon the enemy a deadly shower of arrows. At last the French were defeated with terrible loss. Among the slain there were seven princes of royal blood, a hundred nobles, eight thousand knights, and more than ten thousand common soldiers. The English only lost some sixteen hundred men.

6. Henry at once marched to Calais and returned to England, where he was received with great joy. Parliament gave him large sums of money, and he prepared to continue the war with France. He returned to France in 1417, and conquered Normandy. Town after town was besieged and taken



BATTLE OF AGINCOURT.

and Rouen which held out for six months, had at last to yield because of famine. In the end Henry became master of the greater part of France. There

was really no one to withstand him, for quarrelling was still going on among the chief French nobles.

7. **Treaty of Troyes**: 1420.—In this year Henry was at the height of his power, and able to dictate terms of peace to the French monarch. These were afterwards contained in what is called the Treaty of Troyes, which said (1) that Henry should marry Catherine, daughter of Charles the Sixth; (2) that he should be Regent of France during the lifetime of the mad King; (3) that he should be King of France on the death of Charles.

8. **Death of Henry**: 1422.—It seemed now as if the English King was sure of the French throne. He paid a short visit to England, but was suddenly called back to France; for his soldiers in that country had been beaten by the French under the Dauphin (French King's eldest son), helped by a large body of Scots. He was once more victorious, and was about to ascend the throne of France, when he suddenly died at the age of thirty-three.

9. Henry's body was brought to England, where it received a grand funeral in Westminster Abbey. It is said to have been one of the most magnificent recorded in history, for the people were proud of their warrior-king. There is no doubt that he was a great soldier and an able man; but his wars cost England a great many lives. Of him it was said: "He had great courage, was valiant in arms, prudent, sage, great in justice, and without respect of persons." Henry's widow married Owen Tudor, a Welsh chieftain, from whom was descended the line of English sovereigns called the Tudor family.



FUNERAL OF HENRY THE FIFTH.



30. HENRY VI.

1422; dethroned 1461: 39 years. Died 1471.

1. **Henry the Sixth.**—Henry the Sixth, the only son of Henry the Fifth and Catherine of France, was a baby nine months old when his father died. As Charles the Sixth of France died two months after the late King, Henry was by the Treaty of Troyes also King of France. He was crowned at



(Each Square is 100 miles.)

Westminster, and again at Paris; and his uncle, the Duke of Bedford, was made Regent of France.

2. War in France.—Though Henry the Sixth was called King of France, the whole of that country was not really conquered. That part south of the river Loire held to the son of Charles the Sixth. The English, under the Duke of Bedford, had much fighting to do; but at the end of five years there

seemed to be some hope of the country being conquered.

3. **Joan of Arc.**—The English laid siege to the city of Orleans. Forts were built around the place, and cannon planted to batter down its walls. Six months later so much progress had been made in the siege, that it was plain the city could not hold out much longer. The fortunes of France seemed to depend on the fate of Orleans. While France was in despair help came in a strange and wonderful manner. A simple peasant girl, called Joan of Arc, who could neither read nor write, believed that she had been told by God to rise and save France. She said that she had heard voices and seen visions, in which she was commanded to go and save Orleans from the English, and to crown the Dauphin at Rheims.

4. Her belief in this mission gave her courage, and made her feel sure of success. The Prince heard her strange story, and at length allowed her to take the command of his army. She was dressed in white armour, and rode upon a war-horse, carrying in her hand a banner on which was written "Jesus Maria." The rough soldiers followed her as if she had been an angel sent from heaven. She was good and gentle, and though a mere girl, yet they obeyed every command which she gave them. They even left off their rude, wicked ways, and joined with her in prayer in the churches to which they came on their march. Wherever she went she was successful; and when she came to Orleans, the English were so much surprised at her appearance,



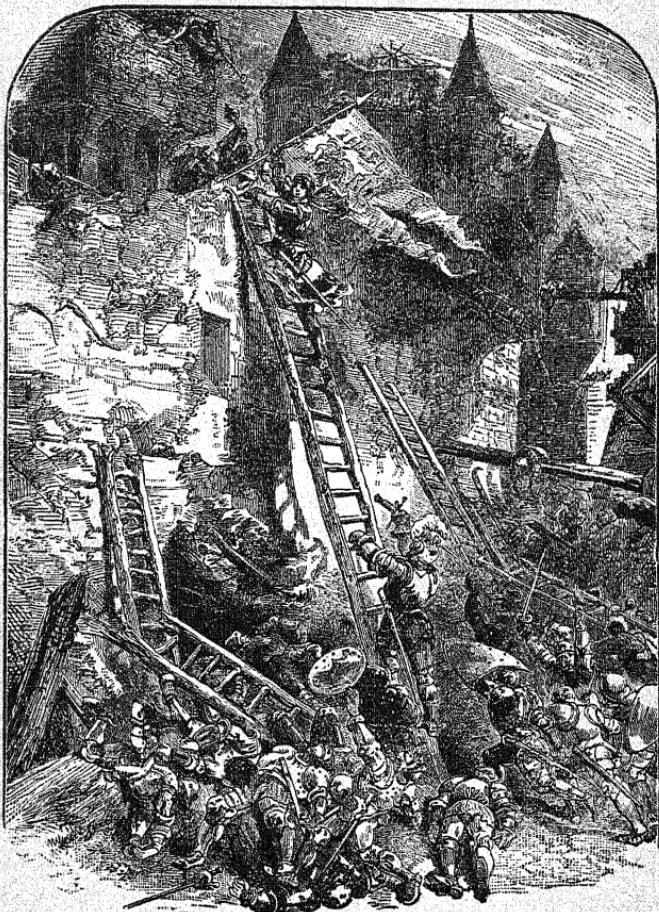
JOAN OF ARC.

that they let her and her army enter the city with waggon-loads of provisions.

5. Joan next ordered an attack to be made on the forts which had been raised outside the town. The last of these forts was so strong that her generals were afraid to attack it. They held a council among themselves, and decided to let it alone. "Then," said Joan, "you have taken your counsel, and I take mine." She mounted her horse, took her banner in her hand, called for her soldiers, and rode quickly out of the city. She had to break open the gate to get out; for the generals, who were afraid that she would insist on going, had ordered it to be bolted. When she had broken through, some of the officers who were her friends called their men together, feeling sure that she was going to defeat and death.

6. All the English who were left about Orleans were in that one strong fort. They fought bravely, and Joan was wounded as she was going up a ladder to try and get over the wall of the fort. She was carried into a vineyard, and laid gently down. She felt faint and weak, but when she heard a retreat sounded, her strength and courage came back. "There must be no retreat!" she cried; "wait a while. Eat and drink, for as soon as my standard touches the wall you shall enter the fort." This was so, and the fort was taken. The English were driven away, and Orleans was saved. From this victory Joan was called "The Maid of Orleans."

7. Charles crowned at Rheims: 1429.—The next thing to be done was to crown Charles at Rheims like all the French Kings before him. The way lay through a part of the country still in the hands of



JOAN ATTACKING THE ENGLISH PORT.

the English, and town after town filled with English soldiers blocked the path. At last Rheims was reached, and Charles was crowned, Joan standing by in her white armour with her banner in her hand.

8. **Death of Joan:** 1431.—Though for a time Joan was victorious, her enemies grew too strong for her. While defending Compiègne, she was taken prisoner by the Duke of Burgundy, and sold to the English. She was treated shamefully, and declared to be a witch, who had been sent by the evil one. After a trial of several months, she was convicted, and burned at the stake in the market-place at Rouen. This was a cruel thing to do. She had done no wrong, but had won success by her love for her country and her great bravery. It is sad to think that, after all that she had done for her country, a Frenchman sat as judge to try her for witchcraft, and the King she had crowned never lifted a finger to save her from a dreadful death.

9. **Loss of France.**—Step by step the English were driven out of France, as Joan had said they would be; and in 1451, when the great war of a hundred years came to an end, nothing remained to them but the one town of Calais. All had gone—the conquests of Henry the Fifth and of Edward the Third, and all the rich lands in the south which English kings had held since they had been brought as a marriage-gift to Henry the Second.

10. **The King.**—King Henry did not come of age till 1442. He was a good and kindly man, but too weak both in body and mind to rule in such troubled times. It would seem as if some of the madness of his grandfather, Charles the Sixth of France, came upon him during the last years of his life. Henry tried to do his duty; but he was not able to govern, and was always ruled by people with

stronger wills than his own. His wife was much stronger and cleverer than he was. Her name was Margaret of Anjou. When years of disaster came, this dauntless "queen of tears" headed councils, led armies, and ruled both King and kingdom. She came from the same part of France as the Plantagenets. She was married to Henry six years before the war came to an end, and she tried to make peace between the two countries. The Duke of Bedford was dead. The Duke of Gloucester was anxious to go on with the war and win back what had been lost; but his plans were not carried out. He was charged with high treason, and died suddenly in prison five days afterwards.

11. **Duke of Suffolk.**—The noble highest in Margaret's favour was the Duke of Suffolk; but he did not use his power well, and the people hated him. He was banished in 1450, but he was taken out of the vessel in which he was about to leave the Thames, and carried on board a war-ship named the *Nicholas of the Tower*. Two days afterwards he was taken on board a small boat and beheaded.

12. **Poverty of the Crown.**—One cause of the weakness of the Crown was its poverty. The revenues of the crown had been greatly diminished by gifts and grants to favourites. The King was obliged to pawn his jewels and the silver plate from his table to pay his wedding expenses.

13. **Wealth of the Nobles.**—While the crown had been growing poorer the wealth of the nobles had increased. The Earl of Warwick and other great lords had made fortunes out of the French wars by

furnishing troops to the King, by the plunder of French cities, and by ransoms obtained from noblemen taken prisoners. It is said that Warwick had at his different castles and in his city mansion in London upwards of thirty thousand men in his service. Backed by such forces, it was easy for the earl and such powerful nobles to overawe the King, the Court, and the Parliament.

14. **Disfranchisement of the Commons.**—With the growth of power on the part of the nobles there was a change made in the law that regulated the election of knights of the shire, as members of Parliament who represented the counties were called. It was now declared that only those who owned land worth a rent of forty shillings a year could vote, and so the House of Commons was made to represent the property rather than the people of the country.

15. **Jack Cade's Rebellion : 1450.**—The people were angry because of the great losses that England had suffered in France. They were weary of the heavy taxes, weary of bad government, and of the unhappiness which wars had brought upon the nation. A rising took place in Kent, and, with Jack Cade at their head, the people marched to London. They demanded that foreign favourites should be sent away, and that the King should get better men to help him to rule the land. The rising was put down, and Cade was slain.

16. **The Roses.** — Richard, Duke of York, now became Protector, and governed the kingdom, for the King was out of his mind. Richard was the son of the Earl of Cambridge, who had been be-



JACK CADE AND THE REBELS IN LONDON.

headed by Henry the Fifth in 1415. He had really a better right to the crown than the King himself, because, through his mother, he was descended from the elder branch of the royal family. At first the Duke of York worked only to help the King, and was content that Henry's son Edward, Prince of Wales, should be regarded as the heir to the throne. But the King's madness passed away in a year; and when the Queen persuaded him to dismiss York, that nobleman, angry at losing high place and power, joined in a rising against the King.

17. There were now two parties in the land, each of which had its own particular badge or symbol. That of the House of York was a white rose, and that of the House of Lancaster a red one. From this the great struggle that now began is known

as the War of the Roses. It lasted thirty years, during which twelve battles were fought, and more than one hundred thousand of the bravest men of the nation fell on the field of battle or were put to death on the scaffold.

18. Civil War.—The first battle was fought at St. Albans in 1455, when the Lancastrians were defeated, and the King was taken prisoner. In the following year Henry became again ill, and York was again Protector. When the King was once more restored to health, he tried to make peace between his Queen and the Duke of York. Margaret, anxious for the rights of her son, called upon the Parliament to say that the Duke of York and his followers were traitors. The Duke once more took up arms, and at the Battle of Northampton King Henry was taken prisoner, and Margaret and her boy fled to Scotland.

19. The Duke of York then claimed the crown, and Parliament chose him as Henry's successor. The Queen refused to agree to the exclusion of her son, and five months later another battle was fought at Wakefield Green. The Yorkists were defeated and the Duke was slain. Margaret had his head cut off, and, wearing a paper crown in mockery of his claims, it was set on the gate of York. The new Duke of York, whose name was Edward, next defeated the Lancastrians at Mortimer's Cross. But the Queen beat the Yorkists in the second battle of St. Albans, rescued the King, and cleared the way to London. Edward, however, reached the capital first, where he was proclaimed King.



PLACES OF INTEREST.

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1455. St. Albans (Herts). 1459. Bloreheath (Staffordshire). 1460. Northampton. " Wakefield Green (Yorkshire). 1461. Mortimer's Cross (Herefordshire). " St. Albans (Herts). | 1461. Towton (Yorkshire). 1464. Hedgeley Moor (Northumb.). " Hexham (Northumberland). 1471. Ravenspur (Yorkshire). " Barnet (Middlesex). " Tewkesbury (Gloucester). 1485. Bosworth-field (Leicester). |
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HOUSE OF YORK.

(THREE KINGS.)

1. EDWARD IV. (*White Rose*)..... 1461-1483: 22 years.
 2. EDWARD V., son..... 1483: 11 weeks.
 3. RICHARD III., uncle..... 1483-1485: 2 years.

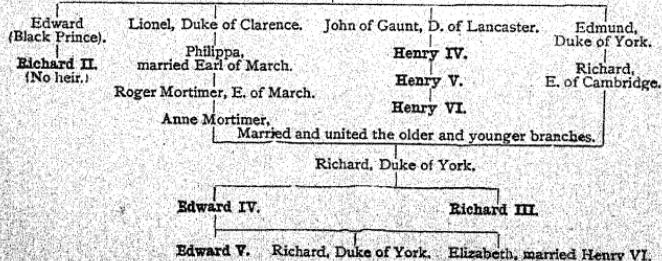
31. EDWARD IV.

1461 to 1483: 22 years.

1. Edward the Fourth.—Edward the Fourth, the son of Richard, Duke of York, was the rightful* heir to the throne. He won back the crown from Henry the Sixth, which that monarch's grandfather, Henry the Fourth, had taken from Richard the Second. He was only nineteen years of age when he became King.

2. Further Struggles.—Henry the Sixth was still alive, and Edward had at once to meet an army which the Queen had raised in the northern counties. A battle was fought at Towton in Yorkshire. The Lancastrians were once more defeated with great slaughter. Henry and Margaret fled for safety, and Edward went to Westminster to be crowned.

* Edward III.



3. Even now the Queen would not give up hope. With Scottish and French aid she fought bravely for her husband and son, but was defeated in two



EDWARD THE FOURTH.

great battles—the one at Hedgeley Moor, and the other at Hexham—in 1464. Henry fled from Hexham to the wilds of Lancashire, where he remained

for more than a year ; but at last he was betrayed into the hands of his enemies, and sent as a prisoner to the Tower of London in 1465.

4. **Warwick the King-maker.**—The Earl of Warwick, called the “King-maker,” was at this time the most powerful nobleman in England. His estates were so large that he could raise an army among his own followers and tenants. Six hundred retainers in uniform followed him to Parliament. He was at the head of the Yorkist party, and without his help Edward could never have won the crown. The Earl had two daughters, and his plan was to marry one of them to the new King. Edward, however, married Elizabeth Woodville, a lady “of low degree,” who had nothing but her beauty to recommend her. She was the widow of Sir John Grey, a Lancastrian leader, who had fallen some years before in the second battle of St. Albans.

5. This marriage did not please the Earl of Warwick, especially when he saw the King placing his wife’s relations in the highest positions in the land. Edward in his turn was angry when Warwick gave his daughter in marriage to the Duke of Clarence, the King’s brother and, at the time, his heir. He felt himself so secure that he seemed to forget that it was unwise to quarrel with so great a man as the Earl.

6. Warwick, aided by his son-in-law, the Duke of Clarence, raised a rebellion among the men of York and Lincoln. The two leaders were declared traitors, and would have been arrested ; but they escaped to France, where they made friends with Queen Margaret, whom they agreed to help against Edward.



KING EDWARD AND PRINCE EDWARD.

Warwick did not promise help for nothing. He arranged that the young Prince of Wales, the son of Henry the Sixth, should marry his second daughter; so that whether York or Lancaster won, he would be on the right side.

7. Henry restored.—When Warwick and his army appeared, Edward fled to Holland, and his wife took refuge at Westminster. Henry the Sixth was brought out of prison, to reign again as King. But Edward did not submit quietly to the change. He came back with an army, and landed at Ravenspur, at the mouth of the Humber, the very place where, seventy-two years before, Bolingbroke (Henry the Fourth) had stepped ashore when he came to seize the crown.

8. **Battle of Barnet:** 1471.—The Duke of Clarence changed sides again, and joined his brother with all the men under his command. They marched to London, where the people gave them a hearty welcome; and King Henry was once more sent to the Tower. Then a great battle was fought at Barnet, where the Earl of Warwick was slain.

9. **Battle of Tewkesbury:** 1471.—Even now Queen Margaret would not give in. She gathered together all who were faithful to the Red Rose for a final struggle; but at Tewkesbury she was utterly defeated, and lost everything. Both the Queen and her son were taken prisoners. After the battle, Edward, Prince of Wales, was brought before Edward the King, and was asked why he had invaded the kingdom. When he replied that he came to retake his father's crown, the King struck him on the mouth with his iron glove, and the King's brothers stabbed him to death with their daggers. On payment of a large sum of money Margaret was eventually set at liberty. She returned to France, where she died of a broken heart.

10. **Death of Henry the Sixth.**—Edward was a bad and selfish man. He was not happy, and was always afraid of treachery. He got rid of every one who came in his way. After the Battle of Tewkesbury King Henry was found dead in the Tower, and it is commonly believed that he was murdered.

11. **Death of Edward.**—In 1478 the King's brother, the Duke of Clarence, was sent to the Tower, where he was put to death. It is said that he was drowned in a butt of wine. Twelve years after the Battle of



CAXTON, THE FIRST ENGLISH PRINTER.

Tewkesbury, Edward died at the age of forty-one. He left two sons—Edward, Prince of Wales, and Richard, Duke of York.

12. **Caxton.**—In this reign William Caxton, the first English printer, lived. He was a London merchant, and a fine scholar. He had spent many years abroad, and returned about 1474, bringing with him a knowledge of the art of printing, which had been invented in Germany some years before. He set up a printing-press near Westminster. The King and his great men went to look at and admire the new toy, little thinking that they were in the presence of a power which would one day be stronger than that of the greatest monarch.

13. In the preface to his first printed work, the "Tales of Troy," he says, "For as much as in the writing of the same, my pen is worn, my hand weary and not steadfast, mine eyes dimmed with over much looking on the white paper, and my courage not so prone and ready to labour as it hath been, and that age creepeth on me daily and feebleth all the body, and also because I have promised to divers gentlemen and to my friends to address to them as hastily as I might the said book, therefore I have practised and learned at my great charge and dispense to ordain this said book in print after the manner and form as ye may see, and is not written with pen and ink as other books be, to the end that every man may have them at once, for all the books of this story here emprynted as ye see were begun in one day and also finished in one day."

**32. EDWARD V.**

1483: 11 weeks.

1. **Edward the Fifth.**—Edward, the eldest son of Edward the Fourth, was only a boy of twelve when his father died. He was never crowned. He was at once taken out of the hands of his mother's relations by his uncle Richard, Duke of Gloucester. Richard had been a faithful friend to his brother.

He had proved himself to be a good soldier and an able ruler; but, like most of the men of his time, he was unscrupulous as to the means he used to gain his ends. Pretending to be anxious about his nephew's safety, he lodged the boy-King in the Tower; not in the dungeons, but in that part of it which was used as a palace. The Queen begged to be made guardian of her son and of the kingdom; but the Council made the Duke of Gloucester Protector.

2. Edward the Fourth had been unwise in giving his wife's relations high places and large estates. The lords were jealous of these new-made noblemen, and therefore, when the King was dead, the Queen had few friends.

3. **Duke of Gloucester.**—The Protector's next step was to remove those nobles who were faithful to the cause of the young King. The chief of these were his mother's brother, Earl Rivers; his own half-brother, Lord Grey; and his father's friend and adviser, Lord Hastings. Hastings was arrested in the council-room, and, without trial, was beheaded on a block of wood that lay in the chapel-yard of the Tower.

4. A few days later Lord Grey and Earl Rivers were executed in Pontefract Castle. Then Richard persuaded the Queen to allow her second son to join his brother in the Tower. After that he declared that his brother's marriage with Elizabeth Woodville was illegal, because he had already been engaged to another lady, and that therefore her son was not heir to the throne. Then he so worked on the minds of the London people that they offered him the crown and made him King.



THE PRINCES IN THE TOWER.

33. RICHARD III.

1483 to 1485: 2 years.

1. Richard the Third.—Richard the Third, the uncle of Edward the Fifth, and brother of Edward the Fourth, was crowned in July, three months after his brother's death. Shortly after he became King, his nephews, the little princes, disappeared from the Tower, in which Richard had placed them, and were never seen alive again. It is said that they were put to death by their uncle's orders, and buried at the foot of the stair which led to their room. Two hundred years afterwards, the bones of two boys were found at the spot where the princes were supposed to have been buried. The remains were removed to Westminster Abbey.

2. **Richard and the People.**—In spite of this bad beginning, Richard ruled well. He saw from the first that he must give back to the people the liberties which his brother had taken from them. He called Parliament together, and made many promises that he would not do anything that was unlawful; and he pardoned those who had suffered imprisonment during the last reign. Good laws were made to protect merchants, and to encourage the new printing-trade. People would have been thankful for a good and strong government, if it had not been for the horror which they felt at the death of the young princes.

3. **Duke of Buckingham.**—Richard had been helped to the throne by a powerful nobleman named the Duke of Buckingham, who was so disappointed in not having a sufficient reward for his services that he turned against the King. The Duke thought at first of trying to seize the throne; but at last he decided to take the part of Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, who had a better right. Before Buckingham could do much harm, he was seized by Richard and beheaded.

4. **Henry Tudor.**—Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was at this time an exile in Brittany; but he was watching things with thoughtful eyes. His claim to the crown was not a very good one, but it was enough to act upon. His father was Edmund Tudor, a Welsh gentleman, who married a great-grand-daughter of John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. Henry was thus by his mother's side descended from Edward the Third.

5. **Battle of Bosworth Field:** 1485.—Henry landed in Pembrokeshire with about three thousand men, and Welshmen everywhere joined him. Marching



RICHARD THE THIRD.

into England, large numbers flocked to his standard; and at Market-Bosworth in Leicestershire he met the King's army. There a battle was fought—the last



CROWNING OF HENRY VII. ON BOSWORTH FIELD.

between the rival Roses—in which Richard was slain in the act of aiming a deadly blow at Richmond. In the battle, Lord Stanley, with his followers, went over to Richmond, and Northumberland, an old Lancastrian noble, stood aloof. Richard fought with great courage even when all hope was gone, and died sword in hand, with the words, “Treason! treason!” on his lips. His crown, which he had worn during the battle, was found by Lord Stanley under a hawthorn bush, and was placed by him on Henry’s head, who was thus crowned on the battle-field as Henry the Seventh.

HOUSE OF TUDOR.

(FIVE SOVEREIGNS.)

- | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Henry VII..... | 1485-1509: 24 years. |
| 2. Henry VIII., son..... | 1509-1547: 38 years. |
| 3. Edward VI., son..... | 1547-1553: 6 years. |
| 4. Mary I., half-sister..... | 1553-1558: 5 years. |
| 5. Elizabeth, half-sister..... | 1558-1603: 45 years |
-

34. H E N R Y V I I.

1485 to 1509: 24 years.

1. Henry the Seventh.—As we have seen, Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond, was the great-great-grandson of John of Gaunt, the son of Edward the Third.* A year after he became King he made a wise marriage, which joined the two houses of York and Lancaster, uniting the Red and White Roses. His wife was Elizabeth of York, the daughter of Edward the Fourth. When the War of the Roses ended, it was found that more than half of the nobility of the realm had perished in the field or on the scaffold, and the power of the feudal barons was entirely broken. What formed an important check to excessive growth of the King's power was thus removed, and the accession of the Tudors marks

* Edward III.

John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster (third son).

Henry IV.

Henry V., whose widow Catherine married Owen Tudor.

Henry VI. Edmund Tudor, Earl of Richmond,

By his third wife—
John Beaufort, Earl of Somerset.

John Beaufort, Duke of Somerset.

Margaret Beaufort.

married

Henry VII. (Earl of Richmond)
married Elizabeth of York.

the beginning of a long period of well-nigh absolute royal power, which continued until another civil war brought it to an end for ever.

2. Rivals to the Throne.—The new King was not without rivals. The chief of these were the Earl of Warwick and the Earl of Lincoln. Edward, Earl of Warwick, was the son of the Duke of Clarence, the brother of Edward the Fourth. He was a boy of fifteen, and was living in Yorkshire. The Earl of Lincoln was the son of Elizabeth, sister of Edward the Fourth. He had been appointed heir by Richard the Third when his only son died. Warwick was at once placed in the Tower; but Lincoln, having paid homage to the new King, remained at liberty.

3. Lambert Simnel: 1487.—Two plots against the rule of Henry were got up by the York party. A baker's son named Lambert Simnel, whose cause was warmly espoused by the Earl of Kildare in Ireland, put himself forward as Edward, Earl of Warwick; and was proclaimed King at Dublin, with the title of Edward the Sixth. Warwick he could not be, as that Prince was at the time a prisoner in the Tower. Henry caused the Prince to be brought out of his prison, and led through the streets of London in view of the people. Simnel, joined by the Earl of Lincoln with two thousand men, invaded England, but was defeated at Stoke by the royal army. Lincoln died on the field, and Simnel was made a servant in the royal kitchen.

4. Perkin Warbeck: 1492.—The next rising was more serious. A handsome and clever man named

Perkin Warbeck claimed to be the Duke of York the younger of the two princes who had been murdered in the Tower. A great many people believed



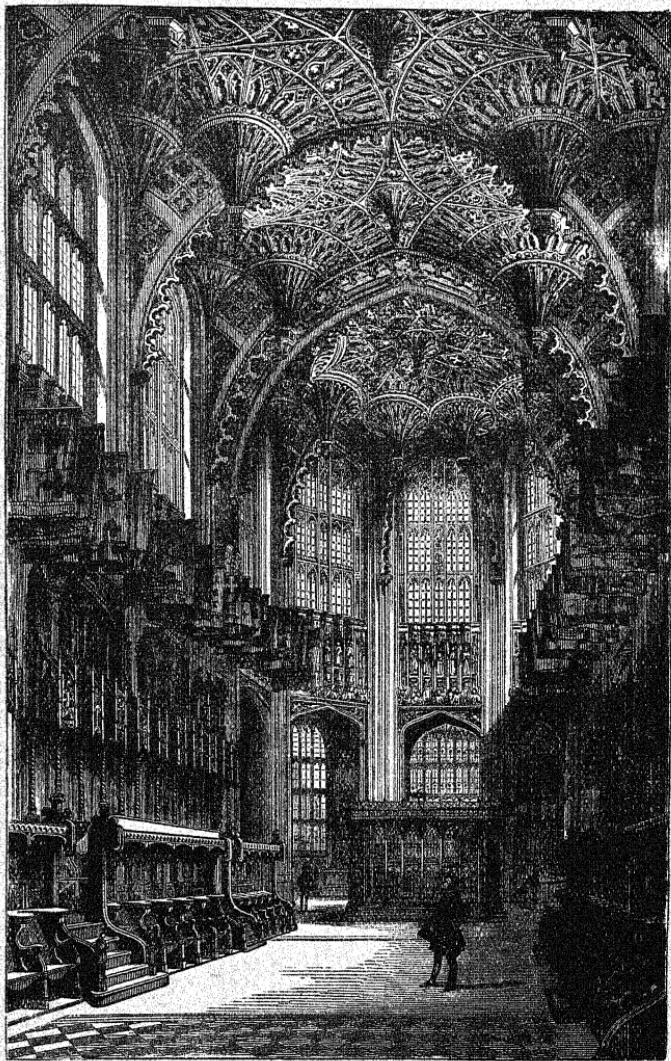
HENRY THE SEVENTH.

him, among whom were the Kings of France and Scotland, and the Duchess of Burgundy. The Irish gave him help, and so did the people of Cornwall.

who were weary of the heavy taxes. Led on by Perkin, an army invaded England, but was defeated by the Earl of Surrey. Warbeck was taken prisoner, and sent to the Tower. In the presence of the people, he was forced to sit in the stocks and read a statement that he was not the person he had pretended to be. A little later he was hanged, and the Earl of Warwick was beheaded. They were charged with having attempted to escape from their prison in the Tower.

5. **The Star Chamber.**—Henry was determined to make his nobles obey him; and for this purpose he set up a court of his own, which could punish those of the highest rank, whom the law courts were afraid to touch. Parliament gave him power to do this; and the court met in a room in the palace of Westminster, which was called the Star Chamber. This room was so called because in it were kept the starra or Jewish bonds.

6. **Henry's Love for Money.**—Henry saw that to be powerful he must also be rich, and therefore he was very glad to receive the fines laid upon the lords by the Court of the Star Chamber. During the civil war old debts had not been paid to the Crown, and many estates had changed hands. Now Henry looked into these things, collected the money due to him—and more, and took possession of all lands whose owners could not show a clear title. Two lawyers, Empson and Dudley, were his agents in so doing, and they acted so harshly that the people hated them. He then set up the old claim of the English kings to the crown of France, and sent an army into that



HENRY THE SEVENTH'S CHAPEL IN WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

(859)

13

country ; but he willingly brought his soldiers home again when the King of France gave him a large sum of money.

7. **Royal Marriages.**—Henry had four children —Arthur, Henry, Margaret, and Mary. Margaret married James the Fourth of Scotland in 1502. This marriage led to the Union of the Crowns of England and Scotland in 1603. Arthur married Catherine of Aragon, daughter of the King of Spain, but died three months after his marriage ; and it was arranged that Henry, his younger brother, should marry his widow. This second marriage led to the overthrow of the power of the Pope of Rome in England.

8. **Death of Henry.**—Henry died in 1509, in his palace at Richmond. He was buried in the beautiful chapel built by him in Westminster Abbey, which has ever since been called Henry the Seventh's Chapel.

9. **Discoveries.**—The world at this time was little known, and was not supposed to be a globe, but simply a flat body surrounded by the oceans. America, Australia, and the greater parts of Africa and Asia were unknown. In this reign Columbus discovered America in 1492 ; and, a few years later, Vasco de Gama sailed to India round the Cape of Good Hope. Sebastian Cabot sailed from Bristol, and opened up the cod fisheries of Newfoundland.



35. HENRY VIII.

1509 to 1547: 38 years.

1. **Henry the Eighth.** — Henry the Eighth, the second son of Henry the Seventh, was eighteen years old at the time of his father's death. He soon got leave from the Pope to marry Catherine of Aragon, his brother's widow. No monarch ever succeeded to the throne of England with brighter prospects. In him were united the claims of the

Houses of York and Lancaster. The royal treasury contained a large sum of money; the nation was at peace; and trade was good.

2. **Battle of Spurs**: 1513.—In the early part of his reign Henry made war against Louis the Twelfth of France, invaded the country, and at Guinegate gained the Battle of Spurs; so named from the rapid flight of the French horsemen, who are said to have used their spurs more than their swords.

3. **Battle of Flodden**: 1513.—The Scots as allies of the French took advantage of Henry's absence to invade England; but they suffered a terrible defeat at the hands of the Earl of Surrey. The Battle of Flodden was fought near the river Till in Northumberland in September 1513. There James the Fourth and the greater part of the Scottish nobility were slain. Margaret, the sister of Henry the Eighth, became Regent of Scotland for her little son, James the Fifth.

4. **Cardinal Wolsey**.—During the first twenty years of Henry's reign his chief minister was Thomas Wolsey of Ipswich. He had been chaplain to Henry the Seventh, and was made Chancellor and Archbishop of York by Henry the Eighth. Then the Pope, seeing that he was both wise and able, made him Cardinal, and appointed him to be his legate in England. He was now the first man in England after the King both in Church and State. A train of clergy and nobles followed him from place to place, and five hundred persons of noble birth made up his household. He had all

the foreign business to attend to, and knew how to deal with the different Kings of Europe for his master's benefit. Christ Church College at Oxford was founded by him; for he was a learned man, and loved to see knowledge spreading throughout the land.

5. Wolsey, however, was more anxious to do good to the King than to the people, and more anxious to do good to himself than even to the King. His one great desire was to be Pope. He grew richer and richer, and built for himself two splendid houses—York House (afterwards White-hall), and Hampton Court Palace. At the beginning of his reign Henry had put to death his father's ministers—Empson and Dudley—because they had so ground down the people in order to obtain money. But he and Wolsey forced the people to lend and to give money, just as Henry the Seventh had done.

6. Field of the Cloth of Gold : 1520.—At this time the King of France and the Emperor of Germany, who was also King of Spain and the nephew of Henry's Queen, were rivals for power and position. They both desired to be first among the monarchs of Europe; and to gain this they wished to have the friendship and help of King Henry. Each sovereign sought the good offices of Wolsey with his master, in return for which the French King gave him presents, and the German Emperor promised to help him to become Pope. In 1520 the Emperor Charles paid Henry a visit, and the King and Emperor rode alone to Canterbury. After this

Henry crossed to France, and met Francis the French King near Calais. Each King had with him a great company of nobles and gallant knights. So grand was the show, and so much money was spent on it, that the meeting-place is known as "The Field of the Cloth of Gold." No good result followed this meeting. Not long afterwards Wolsey made an alliance between Henry and the Emperor, his uncle by marriage, against his cousin Francis, the King of France.

*Yafasa Ni p'a
mepa fa maphes.*

7. **Anne Boleyn.**—When Henry had lived with Catherine for about eighteen years, he grew tired of her, and he was also greatly disappointed that all her children had died except the Princess Mary. He was afraid that if he died without leaving a son to succeed him there would probably be a dispute about the succession, for no woman had yet ruled over England or any important European country. He also fell in love with one of the Queen's maids of honour, a beautiful young lady named Anne Boleyn, and he made up his mind to marry her. He pretended that he had done wrong in marrying so near a relation as his brother's wife, and he asked the Pope to divorce or set him free from Catherine.

8. **Henry and the Pope.**—He expected that the Pope would do what he wished, in return for what he had done for the Church. Only five years before he had written a book against a German monk named Martin Luther, who was trying to reform the Church; and the Pope, as a mark of favour, had given Henry the title of "Defender of the Faith."

Henry's request placed the Pope in a very difficult position. He did not wish to offend Henry; but he was also afraid of Catherine's nephew, Charles the Fifth, King of Spain and Emperor of Germany. He did not know what to do between these two powerful sovereigns; and he asked Queen Catherine to go quietly into a nunnery, and leave her husband to do as he pleased. She refused, not only on her own account, but also on that of her only child Mary. All this time Wolsey was also in great difficulty, for he wished to please both the Pope and the King. He did not like the Boleyn marriage, but he did not see how to prevent it. At length the Pope ordered Wolsey and another legate to try the case. The Queen came into court, knelt before her husband, and begged him to have mercy on her. In the end both legates said that the trial must be finished at Rome. Henry was very angry, because he knew that the Pope would not dare to offend the Emperor.

9. Wolsey's Fall: 1530.—Both the King and Anne Boleyn believed that Wolsey had played false with them, and they resolved to remove him out of the way. He saw that he had lost favour with the King, and he made haste to offer him his fine palaces. He then retired to York. But Henry did not forget him; and a year later he commanded the Cardinal to return to London to be tried for high treason. On his way, worn-out and broken-hearted, Wolsey halted at Leicester, and died there in the abbey. On his death-bed he said, "Had I served my God as diligently as I have served my King,



WOLSEY DISMISSED BY HENRY.

he would not have given me over in my gray hairs!"

10. **Thomas Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury: 1533.**
—Thomas Cranmer, a scholar of Cambridge, and Wolsey's former servant and friend, advised the King

not to look to the Pope for his divorce, but to ask advice of the learned men in the universities. When Henry heard this, he said that Cranmer "had got the right sow by the ear;" and he asked the universities whether it was lawful for a man to marry his brother's wife. The answer was "No;" and in the end Catherine was put away. Henry married Anne Boleyn; and Cranmer was made Archbishop of Canterbury. The Princess Mary left the Court with her mother. She was declared to be no longer Henry's heir. In the following year her step-sister Elizabeth was born. Henry was vexed that he had no son, little thinking that this daughter would have a more glorious reign than that of any King who had yet sat upon the throne.

11. **The Reformation.**—We have seen that at this time a learned monk named Martin Luther, who lived in Germany, was trying to make things better in the Church. He said that the Pope, bishops, and clergy were not ruling the Church according to the Bible; and it was against this teaching that Henry had written the book for which the Pope made him Defender of the Faith. Henry had no love for the Reformed Church, and when he turned against the Pope he had no thought of setting it up in England. About this time Thomas Cromwell, who had been in Wolsey's service and had become secretary to the King, found that, according to an old law of England, any one who set the Pope's authority above that of the King could be punished by imprisonment and loss of lands. Henry used this old law first against Wolsey for having acted

as the Pope's legate. He had allowed Wolsey to do so until the Cardinal displeased him; but now he said that Wolsey and those who acted with him had broken the law.

12. Henry the Head of the Church.—To please the King, the clergy acknowledged him as Supreme Head of the Church, "as far as the law of Christ will allow." Three years later, Parliament passed laws which put an end to the Pope's authority in England. The Act of Supremacy made the King Head of the Church of England. Henry's full title was now "Henry VIII., by the grace of God, King of England, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, and of the Church of England, and also of Ireland, on earth the Supreme Head."

13. Sir Thomas More.—Sir Thomas More was the foremost Englishman of the time. He was a good and just man, who served his King and country faithfully. He succeeded Wolsey as Lord Chancellor. When the King asked him to acknowledge the children of Anne as lawful successors to the throne, he agreed to do so, because he knew that the King and Parliament had a right to settle this matter as they pleased; but when he was asked to swear that Anne was Henry's lawful wife, and that Henry was the rightful Head of the Church, he refused to do so; and he and Bishop Fisher of Rochester were sent to the Tower, and beheaded on a charge of high treason.

14. Suppression of the Monasteries: 1536.—There were in England at this time more than six hundred monastic houses. Here dwelt men and women

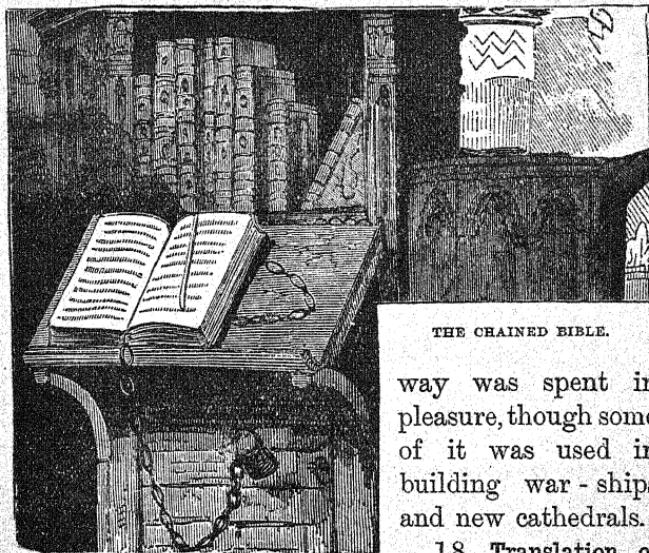
who had taken the three vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience. To obtain money, Henry now decided to put down all the small monasteries. He said that his reason for doing so was, that the monks and nuns who lived in them had become very wicked. They were therefore turned out of their houses, and Henry seized their lands and money.

15. The Pilgrimage of Grace: 1536.—In the north of England the poor people had received much help from the monks and nuns, and when the monasteries were put down they rose in rebellion. This was called the Pilgrimage of Grace, because it was done in the name of religion; and a banner was carried before the rebel hosts on which were displayed the five wounds of Christ. The King found it hard to put down the revolt. He made promises to the people, which he never kept, and then seized the leaders and put them to death.

16. The Countess of Salisbury.—There was another rising about the same time in the west of England, which brought one of the last of the Plantagenets to the block. This was a very old lady, named Margaret, Countess of Salisbury. She was the daughter of George, Duke of Clarence, brother of Edward the Fourth, and sister of the Earl of Warwick who was beheaded by Henry the Seventh in 1499. On the scaffold she refused to kneel down, and her head was struck off as she stood. Her son, Lord Montague, was also beheaded. Another son escaped to Rome just in time, and lived there in safety as Cardinal Pole.

Cardinal Pole

17. **A Tyrant King.**—And now Henry crushed out the old English freedom which had been obtained from other Kings. The Lords could do nothing, and the House of Commons was filled with men who were chosen by the King's Council. Henry had power both as Head of the Church and as ruler of the land. Every one seemed to be afraid of him, for Cromwell sent out spies, and no one felt safe. As time went on Henry wanted more money; so he and Cromwell hit upon a plan for doing away with the great monasteries. They could not do this without giving a reason; and so they said that the monasteries were places in which much evil was done, and that those who lived in them were idle and wicked. Parliament did not agree to this all at once. It is said that Henry sent for a leading member of the House of Commons, and laying his hand on the man's head, said, "Get my bill passed by to-morrow, little man, or else to-morrow this head of yours will come off." The next day the bill passed, and the work of destruction began. The grand monastic buildings throughout England were stripped of everything of value, and left as ruins. The beautiful windows of stained glass were wantonly broken, images of saints were thrown down, bells were melted and cast into cannon, and valuable libraries were torn up and sold to shopkeepers for wrapping-paper. Even Becket's tomb in Canterbury, after he had been four hundred years in his grave, was broken open, and the rich jewels and rich offerings seized by the King. Most of the money obtained in this



THE CHAINED BIBLE.

way was spent in pleasure, though some of it was used in building war-ships and new cathedrals.

18. Translation of

the Bible.—The most important thing that Henry did was to order the Bible to be translated into English. The last translation had been made by Wyclif; but already the language had greatly altered, and people did not understand many of the words that had been used before this time. The Bible was therefore translated into English, because the King thought that it would teach them to take his side against the Pope. In 1526 William Tyndale printed part, and ten years later Miles Coverdale printed the whole of the Bible. A copy was ordered to be placed in every parish church, and to be fastened so that no one could carry it away.

19. Death of Anne Boleyn: 1536.—Anne did not long enjoy her queenship, for the King grew tired of her,

and wished to marry one of her maids of honour named Jane Seymour. To get rid of his Queen, Henry said that she was not a good woman and a true wife. She was therefore sentenced to death and beheaded.

20. Jane Seymour: 1537.—On the day after Anne's execution, Henry married Jane Seymour. She did not live long enough for her husband to grow tired of her. She died eighteen months later, leaving one son, Edward. Elizabeth, the daughter of Anne, had shared the same fate as Mary, and had been sent away from the Court. Both of them led lonely and sorrowful lives, feeling bitterly the treatment their mothers had received.

21. Anne of Cleves: 1540.—For some years Henry remained unmarried, and then Cromwell was told to look about for a fourth wife for the King. He chose a Protestant princess, named Anne of Cleves, sister of the Duke of Cleves—a small domain on the Rhine—who was a very good woman. When she came from Germany to marry the King, he was not pleased with her appearance, for she was not beautiful, and he made up his mind at once to divorce her. She lived in England for the rest of her life, and was known as the Lady Anne of Cleves. Henry gave her a house to live in, and a good yearly income. She treated the two princesses kindly, and Elizabeth was very fond of her.

22. Cromwell's Death: 1540.—The divorce of Anne of Cleves brought about Cromwell's fall. Henry was very angry with him for having found him a wife who was not good-looking. Cromwell was arrested, and a bill was brought into Parliament to put him

to death. He had himself made a law forbidding people accused of high treason to be heard in their own defence. He was the first to suffer by it, and had to die in silence. Cromwell was not a traitor to the King, though to please him he was a traitor to English liberty ; but he did not, like Wolsey, make himself rich with the country's money. He gave English laws to Wales, and made the two countries one.

23. Catherine Howard : 1540.—After Cromwell's death, Henry married Catherine Howard, the beautiful niece of the Duke of Norfolk. She was a Roman Catholic, and Henry at this time passed a law against Protestants. On one occasion a cart carried six men to execution. Three of them were Roman Catholics, who refused to own the King as Head of the Church; and three were Protestants, who refused to believe all that the King ordered to be taught in what is called the Six Articles. These were—(1) the presence of the natural body and blood of Christ in the bread and wine in the holy communion ; (2) in the communion the bread only was to be given to those not priests ; (3) monks and nuns must remain unmarried ; (4) private masses should be said ; (5) priests should remain unmarried ; and (6) confession to a priest was necessary for salvation.

24. Henry's sixth Wife : 1543.—In less than two years Henry's fifth Queen, Catherine Howard, was beheaded for having done wrong before her marriage. In the following year Henry married Catherine Parr, who lived longer than he did. She was once very nearly being sent to the Tower for not agree-

ing with her husband in religious questions; but she was clever enough to make peace with him and save her life.

25. **Death of Henry.**—Before Henry died, his temper grew so bad that no one dared to cross him in anything. He was so ill and weak in body, and so stout, that he could not move about without assistance. One of the last things that he did was to order the Duke of Norfolk and his son, the Earl of Surrey, to the Tower. Surrey was a poet, and a brave, good, clever young man. His death was mourned by all. Norfolk's life was saved by Henry's death. In his will, Henry said that his son Edward was to succeed him; and, if he died without children, Mary was to be Queen; and after her Elizabeth. In this way he owned the two princesses as his lawful daughters.

26. **Ships.**—At the beginning of his reign Henry had only one ship of war, the *Great Harry*, which had been built by his father. He set about building others, and soon had a useful fleet. He made dockyards at Portsmouth, Woolwich, and Deptford. He also set up what is called Trinity House, to manage the lighthouses, beacons, pilots, and buoys round the coast.



36. EDWARD VI.

1547-1553: 6 years.

I. **Edward the Sixth.**—Edward the Sixth, the son of Henry the Eighth and his third wife, Jane Seymour, was only ten years old when his father died. A Council was formed to rule in the King's name. At the head of it was his uncle, the Duke

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of Somerset, who was made Protector. Somerset was a Protestant; but he did much harm by making changes which the country was not ready to receive.

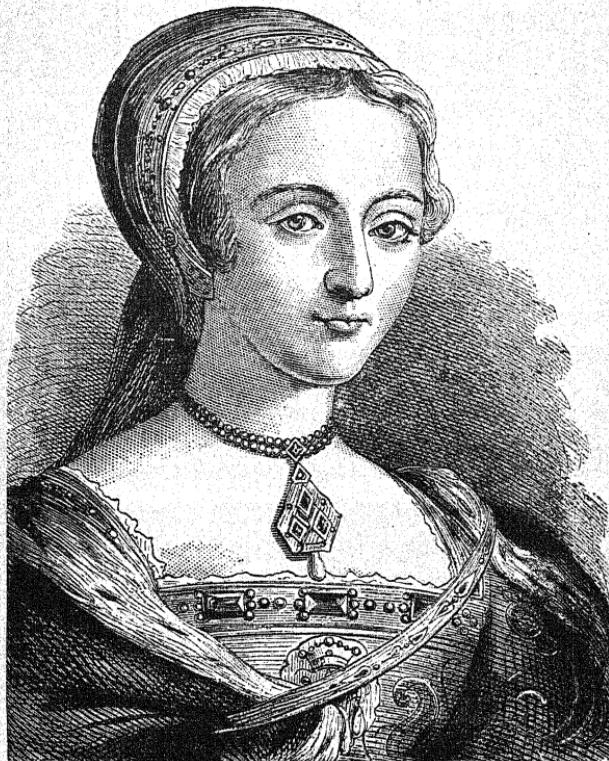
2. **Battle of Pinkie:** 1547.—The late King had wished to arrange a marriage between his son and Mary, Queen of Scots, who at this time was only about five years of age. The Protector tried to carry out this plan; but the Scots would not agree. An army was sent against them, and they were defeated at Pinkie, near Edinburgh. To prevent the young Queen from being carried off to England, her friends sent her to France, where she was educated, and afterwards married to the eldest son of the French King.

3. **Religious Changes.**—The Protector and Cranmer, the Archbishop of Canterbury, continued to make many changes in the Church. Priests were allowed to marry, images in churches were destroyed, a new prayer-book in the English language was made, and mass was forbidden to be said.

4. These changes caused revolts in Devonshire, Cornwall, and Norfolk. The people were in great distress, the laws were severe, work was scarce, and thieves and “sturdy beggars” abounded. Somerset was sorry for the poor people; but he was not a wise ruler, and could make no plan to help them. The lords who were about him had no pity. They put down the revolt by force, and things went on as before.

5. **Somerset's Fall.**—The Protector was fond of money as well as of power. He built himself a grand palace in London, which is still known as

Somerset House. To make room for it, he blew up a chapel with gunpowder and pulled down a church. Things like this shocked the people, and set them



LADY JANE GREY.

against him. He had to give up his high position as Protector, and not long afterwards was put to death on a charge of trying to get back his former power.

6. **The Duke of Northumberland.**—The new Pro-

tector was Dudley, Earl of Warwick, who was made Duke of Northumberland. He sent Gardiner and Bonner, the Roman Catholic bishops of London and Winchester, to the Tower, and put Latimer and Ridley, two Protestant bishops, into their places. Edward was surrounded by people who talked a great deal against the Pope and the old religion, and so he became a strong Protestant.

7. **Death of Edward.**—Edward was barely sixteen when he died of consumption. The Duke of Northumberland, afraid of what might happen should Mary become Queen, had persuaded Edward to set aside his father's will, and name the Protestant Lady Jane Grey as his successor. She was the granddaughter of Mary Tudor, a daughter of Henry the Seventh. She was at the time a young girl of about the same age as the King. When Edward's will had been made in favour of Lady Jane, the Protector married her to his own son, Lord Guilford Dudley. In this way he hoped, as father-in-law of the future Queen of England, to retain the power he had obtained.

8. Some good was done in this reign by the founding of eighteen grammar schools in different parts of the kingdom. Edward, who was a good scholar, founded Christ's Hospital, generally known as the Blue Coat School for orphans, from the costume of the boys. It consists of a long blue coat, like a monk's gown, reaching to the ankles, with a broad leather belt, bright yellow stockings, and buckled shoes. The boys go bareheaded summer and winter.

37. MARY I.

1553 to 1558: 5 years.

1. Mary the First.—Mary, the daughter of Henry the Eighth and his first wife, Catherine of Aragon.



THE CROWN OFFERED TO LADY JANE GREY.

was now by her father's will Queen of England. The Duke of Northumberland proclaimed Queen

his son's wife, Lady Jane Grey, and sent soldiers to seize Mary, and hinder her from going to London; but she was too quick for him, and the people received her with shouts of joy. Lady Jane and her father-in-law were sent to the Tower, and a month later the Duke was beheaded.

2. *Mary's Religion.*—Mary, like her mother, was a Roman Catholic. It could not be expected of her to like the new religion, for it was a Protestant who had brought about the divorce of her mother, and had led her father to defy the Pope. She had been neglected and unkindly treated by her father and his advisers; and now she made up her mind to restore the Roman Catholic form of worship. Cranmer, the Archbishop of Canterbury, was sent to the Tower. So were Latimer, Ridley, and many others. Gardiner and Bonner were brought out of prison, and put into their old places. The married priests had to give up their churches. Mass was ordered to be said, and the new English Prayer-book was forbidden.

3. There were many people who had never liked the Prayer-book, and they were glad to see it no longer used. They welcomed the old ways; but no one wished to have the Pope at the head of the Church again. This, however, was what Mary was bent upon. She would not call herself Head of the Church, as she believed that that place by right belonged to the Pope. When she became Queen she felt for the first time in her life safe from danger. The power was now in her own hands, and she used it, as she thought, for the good of her country and her religion.

4. **Philip of Spain.**—To help her in carrying out her wishes, she married her cousin, Philip the Second of Spain; for he was the most powerful and the "most Catholic" sovereign in Europe. This marriage



MARY THE FIRST.

did not please the English people. They had heard of the cruel persecutions which had been carried on in Spain, and they did not want to be under the

power of the King of that country. There were revolts in many parts of the land. One of these was led by Sir Thomas Wyatt, a friend of Elizabeth, and the Duke of Suffolk, the father of Lady Jane Grey. The rebellion was put down, and many executions followed. Wyatt, the Duke of Suffolk, Lady Jane Grey and her husband, with many others, were put to death, and Elizabeth was sent to the Tower. The nine days' Queen died at the age of seventeen, a victim of the greatness which had been thrust upon her.

5. Philip was a cruel, cold-blooded man, and did not care for his wife. He was only anxious to gain power in England. Mary loved him, and, as time went on, suffered much from his coldness and neglect. He was very angry because the Parliament refused to give him the title of King of England. He was also vexed that he had not a son to come after him, and be ruler of Spain and England. Philip remained for about a year in this country, and then returned to Spain.

6. **Persecution of the Protestants.**—Mary persuaded Parliament to own the Pope as Head of the Church. Cardinal Pole was sent as legate to England, and Mary made him Archbishop of Canterbury. Then a law was passed giving power to the Church to burn those who refused to acknowledge the Pope. Sad days followed for England. The first to suffer were Hooper, Bishop of Gloucester, and Rogers, a canon of St. Paul's. This was in 1555. In the three years that followed nearly three hundred persons gave up their lives rather than deny their re-



RIDLEY AND LATIMER IN PRISON.

ligion. Among these were the two good bishops, Latimer and Ridley, who were burned together at Oxford. Then Cranmer suffered; and many Protestants fled to Geneva and Frankfort until happier days should come.

7. Philip came once again to England before Mary's death, to ask her to give him English soldiers and money to make war on France. To please her husband she did so; and this war resulted in the loss of Calais, which had been an English town for two hundred years, since the days of Edward the Third.

8. **Death of Mary.**—In bad health, old and worn

out before her time, the loss of Calais was a great blow to her. The neglect of her husband, the dislike of her subjects, their willingness to die for the new religion, all working together, brought on a fever, of which she died in 1558. With the end of her reign, the Pope once more lost all power in England, never to regain it.

38 ELIZABETH. (Part I.)

1558 to 1603 : 45 years.

1. Queen Elizabeth.—Elizabeth was the daughter of Henry the Eighth and his second wife, Anne Boleyn. She was received with great joy by the nation, for England was in a state of gloom and misery. Religious persecution had wearied and sickened the people. Hundreds had suffered for their faith, and a great many had fled to other lands. Trade had gone down, and England, dragged into a war with France, to help Philip of Spain, had lost Calais. The discontent was so great that only Mary's death prevented a rebellion.

2. Elizabeth resolved to have peace and order in the land. She was only twenty-five years of age, but she had a wise head. Her life had not been an easy one, and she had learned by many dangers and difficulties to be careful and prudent in all that she said and did. She had her father's strong will, and frank, good-humoured, commanding manner, with much of her mother's beauty and grace when she was young. She was a bold horsewoman,

a good shot, a graceful dancer, a skilled musician, and a clever scholar. She spoke Italian and French as easily as English, and read daily in the Greek



ELIZABETH.

Testament. She looked and spoke and moved like a queen, and her people were delighted with her from the very first.

3. Scarcely had she entered upon her new duties,

when she received an offer of marriage from Philip of Spain, the husband of her late sister Mary. Philip was at this time the ruler of Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Netherlands, and he hoped by marrying Elizabeth to add England also to his realm. She declined the offer, and also similar ones from the Kings of Denmark and Sweden. In the following year the Commons asked the Queen to fix her choice of a husband; but she replied that England was her husband and all Englishmen her children. To her first Parliament she had said, "Nothing, no worldly thing under the sun, is so dear to me as the love and good-will of my subjects."

4. **The Protestant Religion.**—One of the first things to be done was the settlement of the country's religion. That it was to be Protestant once more was beyond question, but not so strictly Protestant as to shock the feelings of the Roman Catholics, who still formed the larger part of the nation. Then there was to be no persecution. Elizabeth's hope was to win her Roman Catholic subjects, little by little, to the reformed religion, and she had to avoid the danger of turning them into enemies. She had many enemies outside her own country, and she wished to have no quarrels or discontent at home.

5. **The Act of Supremacy: 1559.**—Her father, Henry the Eighth, had called himself with pride "Head of the Church." This title Elizabeth dropped, but a law was passed at the beginning of her reign, called the Act of Supremacy, which required all persons holding office under Govern-

ment to acknowledge the Queen as supreme both in spiritual and in temporal affairs. Another law, called the Act of Uniformity, ordered the Prayer-book of Edward the Sixth to be used in every church.

6. The priests whom Elizabeth found in charge of the churches were allowed to keep their places on condition of obedience. All Mary's bishops but one, and about two hundred of the clergy who openly refused, were turned out of their livings. The rest stayed where they were, read aloud from the English Bible and the English Prayer-book, and were Protestant ministers in name if not in reality. Matthew Parker, who had been chaplain to Anne Boleyn and also to Henry the Eighth, was made Archbishop of Canterbury in 1559. An edition of the Scriptures called the "Bishops' Bible" was prepared under his direction. There were still some of the Protestants who did not think that Elizabeth's scheme went far enough. They were bent on destroying everything that seemed to be a vestige of Romanism. They objected to the use of the ring in marriage, the cross in baptism, and to other practices which they regarded as superstitious. These reformers were called Puritans.

7. **The Poor Law.**—Another matter which had soon to be dealt with was the state of the poor. There was a great deal of distress in all parts of the country. Men who had no work wandered about in gangs, begging, and robbing and stripping travellers on the road. People lived in terror of them. Until now the law had punished such people, and we read of fifty being hanged at one time.

Elizabeth began by being as severe upon them as her father had been; but when at length she saw that punishment would not cure the evil, she had the matter carefully looked into. It was found that though there was much wickedness and lawlessness in the land, there was also a great deal of real suffering.

8. A law was therefore made which did three things. It caused wandering people to settle down in the places to which they belonged, it forced the sturdy beggars to work, and it provided food and shelter for those poor creatures who were too old to work. Every parish or town in the kingdom was told that it must take care of its own poor. Ten years after this another law was added ordering houses to be built in which wandering people could be kept for a time, punished, and made to work. The last improvement on these laws was made in 1601, two years before Elizabeth's death; and the Poor Laws have remained almost unchanged to the present time.

9. A "Nation of Shopkeepers."—Elizabeth took great interest in trade. We have been called a "nation of shopkeepers." Shopkeeping began in earnest in Elizabeth's reign. Companies of merchants were formed, and the Royal Exchange was built in London, where merchants could meet to buy and sell. The trade of the country was improved by thousands of workmen from France, Flanders, and the Netherlands taking refuge in England from the religious persecution of Philip of Spain. Four thousand Flemings (Flanders people) settled in

Norwich, and that town soon became rich and important as the city of woollen manufactures. Many silk weavers from France came to London. In the crypt (below the floor) of Canterbury Cathedral there is an old chapel which Elizabeth gave to the French and Flemish refugees, that they might have Protestant services in their own languages.

10. The arts and manufactures of these foreigners soon spread over England. Cloth began to be made at Halifax in Yorkshire, and frieze at Manchester in Lancashire. Instead of sending wool to be woven in Flanders and dyed in Italy, a knowledge of spinning, weaving, and dyeing became general throughout the country, and farmers' wives began to make use of the fleeces of their sheep. Elizabeth gave a warm welcome to all refugees, and helped them to settle in England. She had the good sense to know that they would benefit her people. In the end it was seen that the country which drove out its working people lost wealth and power, and the country which welcomed them became rich and great.

11. English Traders.—As the trade of England increased year by year, men began to be more daring, and to go out in ships to other lands to sell what they had made and to buy what other nations had to sell. London became the market of the world. Merchants came here to buy not only English woollens, but Indian silks, and cotton, and gold, and silver, which had been brought to this country in English ships. It was in this reign that the Turks began to trade with England, after find-

ing, to their great surprise, that it was a country by itself, and not, as they had thought, a province of France.

12. English ships (plucky little vessels no bigger than collier boats of our own days) sailed regularly to the Mediterranean ; away north to find Archangel, and open up a trade with Russia ; further north again to look for the north-west passage to India ; and away into the Polar seas to catch whales. The fisheries round the English coasts also became more prosperous, and the cultivation of the land was greatly improved. There was more money in the country to spend on new ways of agriculture, and it was soon found that one acre produced more than two acres had done before. Then more labourers were needed on the farms, and in this way many who had been rogues and beggars were usefully employed.

13. Mode of Life.—The people began to live more comfortably, in new houses of brick or stone. Rich people built large, pleasant houses, instead of the gloomy castles of the olden time, adorned them with paintings and engravings, and laid out gardens around them. They covered the floors with carpets instead of rushes, and large windows of glass lighted the new houses. Tea and coffee were yet unknown, and beer was the usual drink at breakfast and supper. At table a great many kinds of food were served in silver dishes ; but fingers were still used in place of forks.

14. English Sailors.—During Queen Elizabeth's reign, a love of travel and adventure began to lead



SIR JOHN HAWKINS.

Englishmen into far countries. Hitherto the hardy population who gained a living by launching their fishing-boats in the stormy seas that encircle the coast of this island, were well known for their skill as seamen, and were engaged largely in the commerce of the Mediterranean; but they were now to render famous the island of their birth by their deeds in every sea.

✓ 15. **Sir John Hawkins.**—“Master John Hawkins coming upon the coast of Sierra Leone, stayed for some time, and partly by the sword, and partly by other means, got into his possession three hundred negroes at the least.” In these words we read the history of the first voyage to the Guinea coast, and Hawkins, though a brave seaman of those times, is



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

remembered as the first Englishman who ever seized and sold negroes as slaves. The regular course of the trade was for ships to repair first to the west coast of Africa for the human cargo—obtained by fraud, violence, and the most inhuman means—and then to carry the Africans to the West Indies, and there barter or exchange them for silver, sugar, hides, etc. Hawkins was an English admiral under Queen Elizabeth, and took a leading part in defeating the Spanish Armada.

16. **Sir Francis Drake.**—It is said that Drake was brought up and educated by Hawkins, who was his kinsman. His father was a sailor, and he became the greatest sailor of the age in which he lived. He and many others of our sailors used to lie in wait for Spanish ships as they came from America

laden with riches. They seized upon them, and carried off the gold, silver, and precious stones which they contained. The Pope had given the New World (America) to the King of Spain; but Drake and his "sea dogs" laughed at this, for they considered that they had as much right to what they could find in America as any one else. Drake hated all Spaniards, because of their religion and their cruelty, and he believed he was doing a religious duty when he made war on them.

17. Round the World.—Drake was the first Englishman who made a voyage round the world. He set out from England with five ships to attack the Spaniards in the Southern Seas. He lost sight of four of his ships, but with the one he had left, the *Golden Hind*, he attacked the Spanish ships wherever he found them, and succeeded in securing much silver and gold. He was afraid of returning to England by the way he had come, as he knew that the Spaniards would be on the watch for him. So he sailed away across the Pacific Ocean, past the East Indies, across the Indian Ocean on the south of Asia, round the Cape of Good Hope, and returned to England after a voyage which had lasted nearly three years, from 1577 to 1580.

18. The Queen was so proud of what Drake had done that she dined with him on board his famous ship. After dinner she took a sword and knighted him on the deck of his vessel, and he became Sir Francis Drake. The Queen ordered the ship to be preserved in memory of the wonderful voyage it had made; and when it would no longer hold to-

gether, a chair was made of one of the planks, and presented to the University of Oxford.

19. Death of Hawkins and Drake.—Under Lord Howard, Drake was employed as vice-admiral in



BURIAL OF SIR FRANCIS DRAKE AT SEA.

the fleet that scattered the Spanish Armada. He made his last voyage in 1595, in company with Sir John Hawkins, their object being to crush the Spanish power in the West Indies. Hawkins died

at Porto Rico, and Drake died in January 1596, while the fleet lay off Porto Bello. He was fifty years of age. His remains were placed in a leaden coffin and committed to the deep.

20. **Sir Martin Frobisher.**—Martin Frobisher sailed to the coast of Labrador, and tried to find a north-west passage to India. He explored various parts of the Arctic coast, and brought back news that gold might be got out there, and many went to look for it. There was no gold, but after a while the adventurers began to form colonies. He too helped to defeat the Spanish Armada, and was honoured with knighthood.

21. **Sir Humphrey Gilbert.**—It was not an easy matter to form settlements of English people in the far north, as the winters were very severe, and the natives of America (Indians) did their best to turn the strangers out. Sir Walter Ralegh and Sir Humphrey Gilbert were half-brothers. They joined in a scheme to found a colony in North America. The first expedition was a failure. In the second, in 1583, Gilbert reached Newfoundland. There he planted a colony, and then sailed southward to explore the coasts; but his men induced him to return to England. One stormy night the *Squirrel*, the ship in which he sailed, went down, and Sir Humphrey and all his crew were drowned.

22. **Sir Walter Ralegh.**—Sir Walter Ralegh also went to America and founded a colony, which he called Virginia, after Elizabeth the "Virgin Queen." His colony was not very successful, as those who went out with him were more interested in looking



LOSS OF THE "SQUIRREL," WITH SIR HUMPHREY GILBERT



SIR WALTER RALEGH.

for gold than in tilling the ground. The capital of North Carolina, near Virginia, is called Ralegh, in memory of the great sailor. Though Ralegh did not find gold, he found two other things which he brought to this country—tobacco and the potato. Tobacco had been introduced into Europe long before Ralegh's time, for the Spaniards had found the Indians in Santa Domingo smoking the leaves of this plant in 1492. He is said, however, to have made it known to his own countrymen. Ralegh planted potatoes in his garden in Ireland, and taught both the English and the Irish to eat them. To this day potatoes are the national food of Ireland.

Grand Cairo -

39. ELIZABETH. (Part II.)

1. **Mary Queen of Scots.**—The daughter of Henry the Seventh had married James the Fourth of Scotland in 1502. Their son, James the Fifth, died directly after the birth of his only child Mary, who is known in history as Mary Queen of Scots. It will be remembered that Henry the Eighth was wishful to marry this princess to his son, afterwards Edward the Sixth, and that the refusal of the Scots to carry out this plan resulted in the Battle of Pinkie in 1547. Elizabeth was the last of Henry the Eighth's family, and was unmarried, therefore the Scottish Queen, being the great-granddaughter of Henry the Seventh, was the next heir to the English throne.

2. **Mary's Claim to England.**—Mary had been brought up in France, and when Elizabeth became Queen of England, Mary was the wife of the French King's son. She was not content with calling herself heir to the English crown, but insisted upon being called Queen of England. This was because doubt had been thrown on the lawfulness of the marriage of Elizabeth's mother, Anne Boleyn, with Henry the Eighth. That marriage had taken place while his first wife, Catherine, was alive, and therefore the Roman Catholics said it was no marriage at all, and their child had no claim to the throne.

3. **Birth of James the First.**—Mary's husband died very shortly after he became King of France, and she returned to her own country, Scotland, a widow.

when she was nineteen years of age. Soon afterwards she married her cousin, Lord Darnley; and their son, James the Sixth of Scotland and the



MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS.

First of England, was the first King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

4. **Mary's Quarrel with her Subjects.**—Lord Darnley was a foolish young man, and soon he and Mary

grew to dislike each other. At length Darnley was killed by an explosion of gunpowder while lying ill in Edinburgh, and Mary was charged with being a party to his murder. The Scottish people were filled with horror, and took up arms against their Queen. They forced her to give up the crown to her infant son, and made her a prisoner in Loch Leven Castle. After a time she managed to escape and collect an army, but she was defeated. This time she fled across the Border, to ask Elizabeth for help to regain her throne, or to allow her to pass through England on her way to France. Elizabeth ordered Mary to be kept a prisoner until she could clear herself of the dreadful charge made against her.

5. **Mary in Prison:** 1568.—This was never done, and Mary was kept a prisoner in England for about eighteen years. During this period a great many plots were formed by the friends of Mary to set her free, and many of the Roman Catholics in England took part in these plots, for they wished to dethrone Elizabeth and place Mary on the English throne.

6. **Norfolk's Plot:** 1569–1572.—When Mary had been only a year in England, the Duke of Norfolk, a Roman Catholic, and one of the greatest English nobles, entered into a plot to set her free and marry her. The plot failed. As soon as Elizabeth heard of it, she locked up Norfolk in the Tower. He was set free again, but soon joined another plot, and after that he was beheaded.

7. **Babington's Plot.**—The plot which led to Mary's death was named after Antony Babington,

a young English gentleman, who was one of its leaders. Those in the plot hoped to get the Catholic Powers to invade England, to put Elizabeth to death, and to place Mary on the throne. Mary said that letters had passed between her and those in the plot, but till the last denied that she had ever wished the death of Elizabeth.

8. **The Trial.**—The trial took place in Fotheringay Castle, Northamptonshire, to which Mary had been removed. The question to be settled was, Had Mary agreed to the plot to murder Elizabeth? She said that she never had agreed to "such a bloody crime :" all she had sought for was her own freedom.

9. **The Letters.**—Copies of letters said to have passed between her and Babington were read, to prove that she knew of the design, and had agreed to it. Mary denied having written the letters, and asked for the originals. At this point the trial was removed from Fotheringay to London. The letters went against Mary ; but they were only copies.

10. **The Sentence.**—In the Court of the Star Chamber, the men who had copied the letters were called up. They swore that the copies were exactly the same as the letters, word for word. Some, however, have doubted this, as the originals were not produced. The judges decided that the Scottish Queen should be put to death.

11. **The Execution : 1587.**—At first Elizabeth was unwilling to sign Mary's death-warrant ; but at length, on December 4th, the warrant was signed.



READING THE DEATH-WARRANT TO MARY, QUEEN OF SCOTS.

The execution took place in Fotheringay Castle on the 8th of February following, at eight o'clock in the morning. Queen Mary was, by Elizabeth's order, buried in the Cathedral of Peterborough. When King James came to the English throne, he caused his mother's body to be removed to Westminster Abbey, and to be buried there.

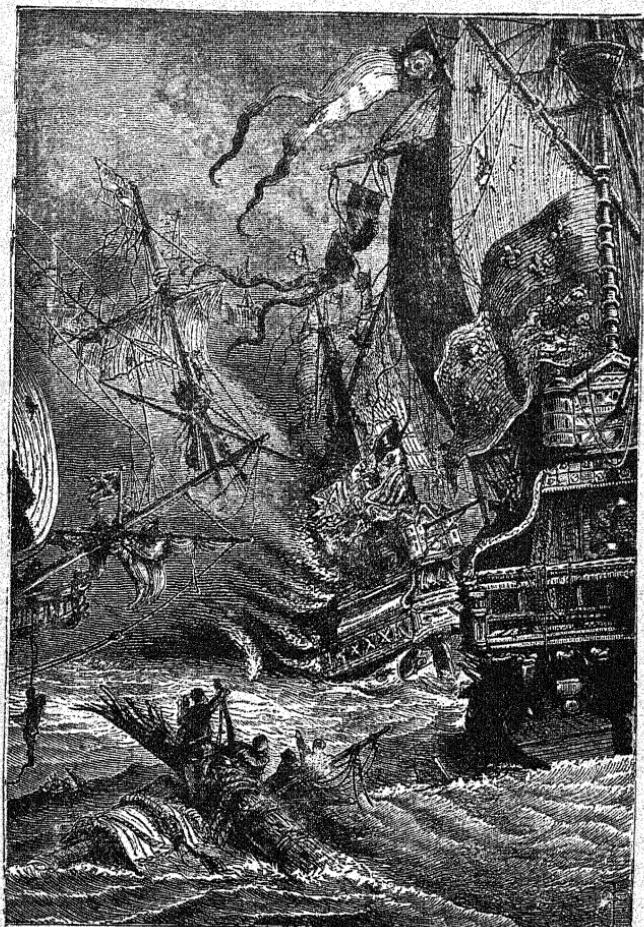
12. **The Spanish Armada:** 1588.—Before Mary died, she made a will leaving her rights as heir to the English crown to the daughter of Philip of Spain. This monarch was also angry with Elizabeth because she had refused to marry him, and had set up the Protestant religion in England, and because she assisted the Protestants in the Netherlands against him. He therefore prepared a great fleet, which he called the "Invincible Armada," with which he proposed to invade England and punish Elizabeth. The Armada was the largest and most powerful fleet of war-ships that had yet been brought together. Twenty thousand soldiers and eight thousand seamen were on board the hundred and thirty-two vessels. On its way to England, at one of the Netherland ports, the fleet was to receive on board an army of 40,000 men under the Duke of Parma, one of the greatest soldiers of the age.

13. All England united to resist the invasion. There was no more talk of Catholics and Protestants. Every one, no matter what his creed, was thoroughly English and thoroughly loyal. The Queen was more powerful than ever, and she worked hard and cheerfully to put her kingdom in a state of defence. An army under the Earl of Leicester gathered at Til-

bury, a fort on the left bank of the Thames, about twenty miles below London. Elizabeth reviewed the troops, saying, with true Tudor spirit, "Though I have but the feeble body of a woman, I have the heart of a King, and of a King of England, too." The little English fleet numbered only about eighty vessels, and fifty of these were not much bigger than our modern yachts. Only four out of the eighty were as big as the smallest of the Spanish ships. But the English ships were well built, light and swift, and were manned by brave sailors, who were determined to fight and, if need be, die for their country. The admiral was Lord Howard, a Roman Catholic, and with him were such bold seamen as Drake, Frobisher, and Hawkins.

14. When the terrible Armada came in sight of Plymouth, Lord Howard put to sea with all his fleet. The Spanish vessels moved heavily and slowly, and the English admiral found that his own light ships could run in amongst them and do a good deal of damage without suffering much harm. The height of the Spanish ships was so great that their cannon were fired over the heads of their enemies, and their sides were so broad that they made good targets for the English guns. The Armada at last reached Calais, but only after severe fighting and the loss of some large vessels. It anchored off Calais to wait for the Duke of Parma and his army; and at midnight the English set eight ships on fire, and sent them with the tide amongst the Spanish vessels, to throw the fleet into confusion.

15. This plan was successful, for the Spaniards in



DESTRUCTION OF THE SPANISH ARMADA.

fright let go their anchors, and tried to get out to sea. The English fleet next closed in upon them,

and the battle began. Three great vessels were sunk, three wrecked upon the shore, and four thousand Spaniards lost their lives. Unable to get back to Spain through the English Channel, which was watched by Elizabeth's ships, the Spaniards tried to make their way through the North Sea and round the Orkney Isles. Here they met with a great storm, in which many vessels were destroyed; and only fifty battered ships, filled with sick and dying men, reached Spain, the last remnant of the Invincible Armada. Thus ended Philip's boasted attack on England. When all was over, Elizabeth went in state to St. Paul's to offer thanks for the victory. It was afterwards commemorated by a medal which the Queen caused to be struck, bearing this inscription: "God blew with his winds, and they were scattered."

16. **Capture of Cadiz.**—Soon afterwards an expedition was sent to Cadiz, in the south of Spain. It was commanded by Lord Howard and the Earl of Essex. The town was well fortified, and was protected by seventy or eighty Spanish ships. The Spanish sailors in a panic set fire to their ships and hurried on shore. The town was then attacked by the English, and in a short time surrendered.

17. **Education.**—As time went on and the country became more settled, learned men began to write books, and knowledge increased among the people. There were many grammar schools all over the land, and from them boys went to college. The Queen, who was a learned woman, able to write poetry, make a speech in Latin, and speak French, Italian,



SPENSER.

and Spanish, often visited Oxford and Cambridge, and showed strong interest in the universities.

18. **Great Writers.**—Every learned and clever man was made welcome at her court; and in time a splendid band gathered about her, and the "new learning" was as much talked about as the "new religion." By the close of Elizabeth's reign there was a wonderful increase in the number of printers and printed books.

19. **Edmund Spenser : 1552–1599.**—Spenser was the first poet of his time. His *Fairy Queen* was the first great English poem since Chaucer wrote his *Canterbury Tales*. Spenser was chief secretary to

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SHAKESPEARE

the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, in which country an estate was given to him, where he had as a neighbour Sir Walter Ralegh.

20. William Shakespeare : 1564–1616.—Shakespeare, the greatest of all poets, was born at Stratford-on-Avon, in Warwickshire. At the age of twenty-two he became an actor and a writer of plays. By this means he became a wealthy man, and was able to buy an estate near his native town, where he ended his days, and was buried in the parish church. He excels all other poets in many respects. He loved nature, and his poetry contains the most beautiful pictures. He studied the looks, the words, the actions of the men and women he met, and his



SIR PHILIP SIDNEY AND THE DYING SOLDIER.

plays reflect them as in a mirror. He thought deeply about the lessons we all need to learn, and his works are so full of them that they are regarded as, next to the Bible, the most instructive we have. He knew better than any other poet how to make us laugh and how to make us weep. His fancy creates fairies, ghosts, and strange monsters so like life that we wonder we do not meet them in the world we live in. Not one of his hundreds of characters is twice drawn. He is able to introduce scenes and characters belonging to Egypt, Rome, Venice, etc., and to make the latter speak and act just as such persons, very likely, would



LORD BACON.

have spoken and acted, not only at the particular place, but at the particular period, to which the poet has assigned the play.

21. Sir Philip Sidney was a courtier, brave, good, and clever. He wrote the *Arcadia*. He died in battle in Flanders, and is lovingly remembered as having on the battle-field given a cup of water, of which he had great need, to a soldier who lay dying near him, saying as he did so, "Poor fellow, thy need is greater than mine."

22. Francis Bacon, afterwards Lord Bacon, a clever writer and splendid speaker, was a member of the House of Commons. He was made Lord

Chancellor in the next reign, but from Elizabeth he received no favour.

23. A Thrifty Queen.—Elizabeth was very careful of her money, and managed to live on the sum she was allowed as Queen without having to put any taxes on the people. One reason of her thrift was her love of power. She found that she could not obtain extra money without at the same time allowing Parliament to have more power. Though Elizabeth called Parliament together as seldom as possible, the people were contented. They were taken care of, their interests were consulted, their comfort had never been so great, and they knew their Queen loved them. They were so proud of her that they called her the "Good Queen Bess," and were ready to fight or die for her if needed. She hated war and bloodshed, and the cost of war was as hateful to her as the war itself.

24. Ireland.—Towards the end of Elizabeth's reign the conquest of Ireland was completed. That country had for some time been in a deplorable condition. There had been many rebellions and much bloodshed since its partial conquest in the reign of Henry the Second. The native chiefs had been constantly fighting among themselves; next the English had tried to force the Protestant religion upon a people who detested it; lastly, the greed and misgovernment of the rulers put a climax to these miseries, so that the country became, as Ralegh said, "a commonwealth of common woe." In 1595 a terrible rebellion broke out under Hugh O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, who defeated the English at

the Blackwater in 1598. The Earl of Essex, who was at this time the Queen's chief favourite, was appointed governor; but he disobeyed her orders, and was recalled. Lord Mountjoy took his place, and succeeded in bringing the country into obedience.

25. **Death of Elizabeth.**—After returning from Ireland, Essex took part in a rebellion, for which he was tried and beheaded. His death was a great blow to the Queen, who never seemed to be happy again. She was old and lonely, her trusted counsellors were gone, and two years afterwards she was stricken with mortal illness. For several days and nights she lay on cushions on the floor, taking neither medicine nor food; then, falling into a heavy sleep, she died.

26. **Character of Elizabeth.**—We have seen that Elizabeth had great learning, and was an able ruler. She did her utmost to secure the love of her people. She was careful of her money, and tried not to make enemies. She knew how to make the best use of the best men, and was assisted in her government by William Cecil, afterwards Lord Burleigh, who was her chief adviser for about forty years.

27. **Colonies.**—Not only were English colonies first formed in America during this reign, but the East India Company, which in the end led to British rule in India, was formed by a company of London merchants, to whom Queen Elizabeth gave a charter. This company ceased to exist in 1858, after the great Indian Mutiny. Since then India has been ruled by the British Government, and our Queen was made Empress of India in 1876.

40. LIFE IN TUDOR TIMES.

1. **Towns and Trade.**—Under the Plantagenets the barons had been gradually losing their power. The Kings had granted to certain craftsmen in the towns the sole right to engage in their own trades. These formed themselves into societies or guilds, each guild protecting its own industry.

2. Trade prospered, and the towns on the coast shipped the products of the country to the Continent. Men now for the first time in England became rich by trading. The different guilds in a town joined together and acted pretty much as town councils do to-day. The lord of the manor—as the nobleman was called on whose land the town had grown up—received his dues from the town, and dealt out justice (like a judge) up at the manor-house.

3. Under the Tudors a vast commerce sprang up; our ships were found in every sea; London became the mart of Europe; and Bristol, Chester, Southampton, and other towns, grew rich with the wealth which came from foreign lands and seas. At home, manufactures flourished: wool was no longer sent to the Continent to be made into cloth; the weaving of linen and of silk had begun; iron furnaces blazed in Kent and Sussex; and a new vigour spread over the nation.

4. **Houses and Streets.**—Stone and brick now began to be used in building. As society was in a more peaceful and settled state the gloomy castles of the Normans gave way to graceful manor-houses.

These buildings were covered with fine carving, and their sites were chosen for beauty instead of strength. Formerly the fire had been in the middle of the floor, and the smoke escaped through a hole in the roof; now, however, chimneys came into use. Glass windows became so common in the houses of the great that Lord Bacon said, "You shall have sometimes your houses so full of glass that you cannot tell where to come to be out of the sun or the cold." Gardens were laid out around the manor-house, and often there were to be seen avenues of lofty and beautiful trees leading up to the entrance. The streets of the towns were still narrow and dirty. The upper stories of the houses projected over the streets, and shut out the daylight from the shops beneath. Such streets and houses may still be seen in old cities like Chester and York. Robberies were so common that few people cared to travel abroad at night. Those who had to go out picked their way along the unpaved streets by the help of lanterns.

5. Furniture.—A great change had come over furniture. Rich curtains hung upon the walls of the houses of the higher classes, and the chairs and tables were finely carved; carpets took the place of rushes on the floors; bedsteads were made more comfortable, and pillows came into general use. Silver plate became common even in the houses of the small farmers; and among the poorer classes the dishes and spoons were made of pewter instead of wood.

6. Meals.—The nobles and gentry still dined

early, and supped about five in the afternoon. Fish and meat were found on the tables of rich and poor alike. Fruit was also becoming common. Those who could afford it drank wine; but the poorer classes washed down their meals with beer, while on holidays they drank much more than was needed for that purpose. The lord of the manor still dined with all his retainers in the hall; but when the meal was over he and his family withdrew to the parlour.

7. **Dress.**—The richer the people grew the less thrifty did they become. Much money was spent on dress; and ladies wore great ruffs of starched linen on their necks and wrists. And grandeur was not all on the side of the ladies. The cloaks of the courtiers were as gay as the dresses of their Queen. Dress and display were everything. Queen Elizabeth at her death left three thousand dresses in her wardrobe.

8. **Amusements.**—Music began to be much cultivated. Among the instruments more frequently used were the zither (a kind of guitar), the lute, and the virginal (one of the forerunners of the modern pianoforte), so called from the *Virgin* Queen. Hunting was then, as it is now, one of the chief national sports. Ladies as well as gentlemen followed the hounds. The tournament had become a mere plaything. Bull-baiting, however, was still carried on; and horse-racing and foot-racing, archery and tennis, were favourite sports. High holiday was kept on May-day, when a Queen of May was chosen, and dances were carried on round a May-

pole decked with flowers. Christmas was the great season of sports. All kinds of queer pranks were played. Everybody, from the highest to the lowest, dressed in fantastic costume, put on masks, and sported about with great fun and frolic.

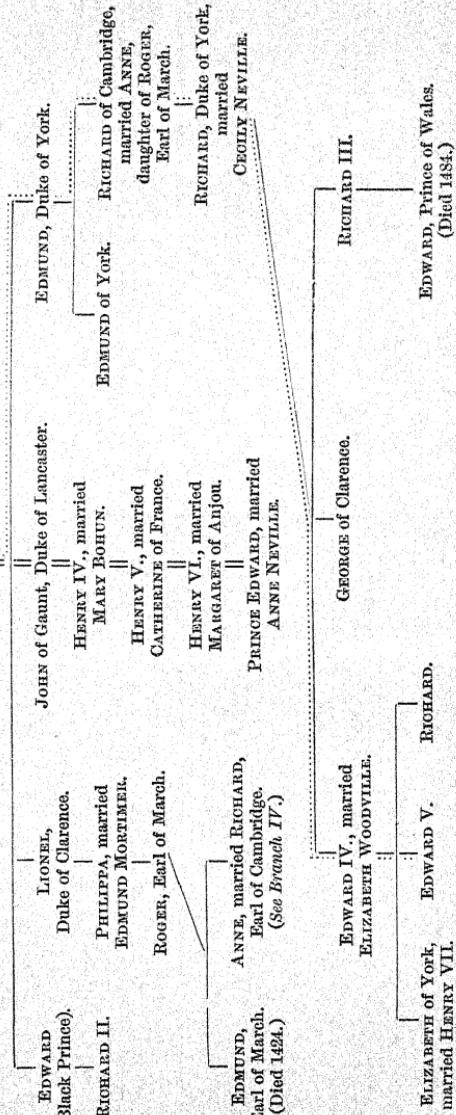
9. **Plays.**—Under the Plantagenets, Miracle Plays had been performed. These were Bible stories made into the form of a drama. Now, however, when literature and learning had spread so much among the people, a race of dramatists arose, the greatest of whom was Shakespeare. At first the theatres were held in the back yards of inns, but the rage for plays was become so great that buildings for the purpose soon sprang up. Plays were often performed in private houses and before the Queen at Court.

10. **Learning.**—Printing had been introduced into England by Caxton in 1474, and the great works of the Greek and Latin writers soon became known. Classics, as these works are called, began to be studied in schools and colleges. Queen Elizabeth read many Greek and Latin authors; but the great dramatist Shakespeare had “small Latin and less Greek.”

GENEALOGICAL TREE

CONNECTING THE PLANTAGENETS AND THE HOUSES OF LANCASTER AND YORK.

EDWARD III., married Philippa of Hainault.



The double line marks the direct descent of the House of Lancaster; the dotted line that of the House of York; but the intermarriage of the second and fourth branches gave colour to the Yorkist claims.

GENEALOGICAL TREES.

I. CONNECTING THE PLANTAGENETS AND THE TUDORS.

EDWARD III.

JOHN Duke of Lancaster (fourth son), had by CATHERINE SWYNFORD,

JOHN BEAUFORT, Earl of Somerset.

JOHN BEAUFORT, Duke of Somerset.

MARGARET BEAUFORT. married.....

HENRY VII. (formerly Earl of Richmond).

CATHERINE, widow of

HENRY V., married OWEN TUDOR.

II. CONNECTING THE TUDORS AND THE STEWARTS.

HENRY VII.

MARGARET, married—
1. JAMES IV.
of Scotland.
2. EARL OF ANGUS.
(Died 1502.)

MARGARET DOUGLAS, married
MATTHEW STEWART,
Earl of Lenox.

MARY, daughter of
CATHERINE ANNE BOLEYN,
of Aragon.

CHARLES STEWART,
Duke of Lenox.

LADY ARABELLA
STEWART.

MARY, married
HENRY GREY,
Marquis of Dorset.

LADY JANE GREY, married
LORD GUILFORD DUDLEY

LOUIS XII. of France.

CHARLES BRASHEAN,
Duke of Suffolk.

FRANCES, married
HENRY GREY,
Marquis of Dorset.

JAMES VI. of Scotland and I. of England.

HOUSE OF STEWART.

(SIX SOVEREIGNS.)

| | |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. JAMES I., son of Mary, Queen of Scots..... | 1603-1625: 22 years. |
| 2. CHARLES I., son..... | 1625-1649: 24 years. |
| Commonwealth (<i>Cromwell, Protector</i>)..... | 1649-1660: 11 years. |
| 3. CHARLES II., son of Charles I..... | 1660-1685: 25 years. |
| 4. JAMES II., brother..... | 1685-1689: 4 years. |
| 5. { WILLIAM III., nephew..... | 1689-1702: 13 years. |
| Married | |
| MARY II., daughter..... | 1689-1694: 5 years. |
| 6. ANNE, sister of Mary II..... | 1702-1714: 12 years. |

41. JAMES I. (Part I.)

1603 to 1625: 22 years.

1. **James the First.**—James Stewart, the first King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, was the only son of Mary, Queen of Scots and her second husband, Lord Darnley. When James was only a year old, his mother, who had quarrelled with her subjects, had been forced to give up her crown to her infant son. He was James the Sixth of Scotland, and had reigned over that country for thirty-six years before he became King of England also.

2. **Union of the Crowns:** 1603.—Till 1603, England and Scotland had each its own sovereign. In that year Elizabeth, the Queen of England, died. She had never been married, and her nearest relative was James the Sixth of Scotland, who now became King of England also. This event is called the Union of the Crowns. Scotland thus gave to Great Britain the first Union King.

3. **How James was Heir to the English Throne.**—

It may seem strange that a Scottish King should be heir to the English throne. You will remember that Henry the Seventh of England had a son, afterwards Henry the Eighth, and a daughter Margaret. This daughter married King James the Fourth of Scotland in 1502. When the family of Henry the Eighth came to an end in 1603, by the death of his daughter Elizabeth, the crown passed to the descendants of his sister Margaret, who, one hundred and one years before, had married the Scottish King. The nearest of these descendants was James the Sixth, who now became "James the First of Great Britain and Ireland." In giving a King to England, Scotland kept her own laws and her own form of religion, and was governed by her own Parliament. Therefore the new monarch found himself ruler over three kingdoms, each professing a different form of religion. Scotland was Presbyterian, Ireland was Roman Catholic, and England was Protestant Episcopalian.

4. On his coins and in public papers James called himself King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland. But as we have already seen, the English had lost the last of their French possessions in the reign of Mary; and the term Great Britain did not properly come into use until 1707, when, by an Act of Parliament, Scotland and England were united into one kingdom by the name of Great Britain.

5. **The King's Appearance.**—James did not look at all like a king. He had a feeble, rickety body; he could not walk straight; his tongue was too

large for his mouth, and he had goggle eyes. For fear of being murdered he always wore thickly-padded clothes, and he could never bear the sight of a drawn sword.



JAMES THE FIRST.

6. **Three Church Parties.**—James had not been many months on the united throne when plots began to be formed against him. There were then

three great Church parties in England—two in the English Church (the High Church and the Puritans), and the Roman Catholics. Each party was hoping that James would favour its form of worship. He had already shown some leaning toward the English Church, in which the clergy are of different ranks, and which is governed by bishops. The Puritans were those who, though still within the Church, desired a purer and simpler form of service than that in use.

7. More than a thousand ministers signed a paper and sent it to James while he was on his way from Scotland to London, asking that they might preach without wearing the white gown called a surplice, baptize without making the sign of the cross on the child's forehead, and marry persons without using a ring; for they thought that these were only superstitious forms which interfered with the true worship of God. Some of them also wished to change the form of Church government and have no bishops appointed by the King. The Puritans thought that a King brought up among Presbyterians, whose ministers are all of equal rank, and whose forms of worship are very simple, could not but favour them. The Roman Catholics thought that the son of Mary, Queen of Scots, would not lift up his hand against his mother's Church.

8. **Main Plot : 1603.**—When it was seen that James had made up his mind to allow only the High Church party, various plots began to be formed against him. One plot, called the Main Plot, aimed at taking the crown from James and

giving it to his cousin, Arabella Stewart. Lady Arabella Stewart, who knew nothing of the plot, was treated very harshly by King James. For marrying without his leave, she was kept a close prisoner in the Tower, until at last she lost her reason and died. Sir Walter Raleigh, the famous traveller and brave soldier, who had been one of Queen Elizabeth's favourite courtiers, was charged with being a party to this plot. He was sent to the Tower of London, and was kept a prisoner there under sentence of death for thirteen years. During the time he was in prison he wrote a *History of the World*. Prince Henry, the King's eldest son, said that "only his father would have caged such a bird" as Raleigh.

9. **Bye Plot.**—Another plot, called the Bye Plot, was planned by some of the Roman Catholics. They intended to seize the King and carry him off to the Tower, and there force him to promise them better treatment in future. Both of these plots were found out, and some of the leaders in them put to death.

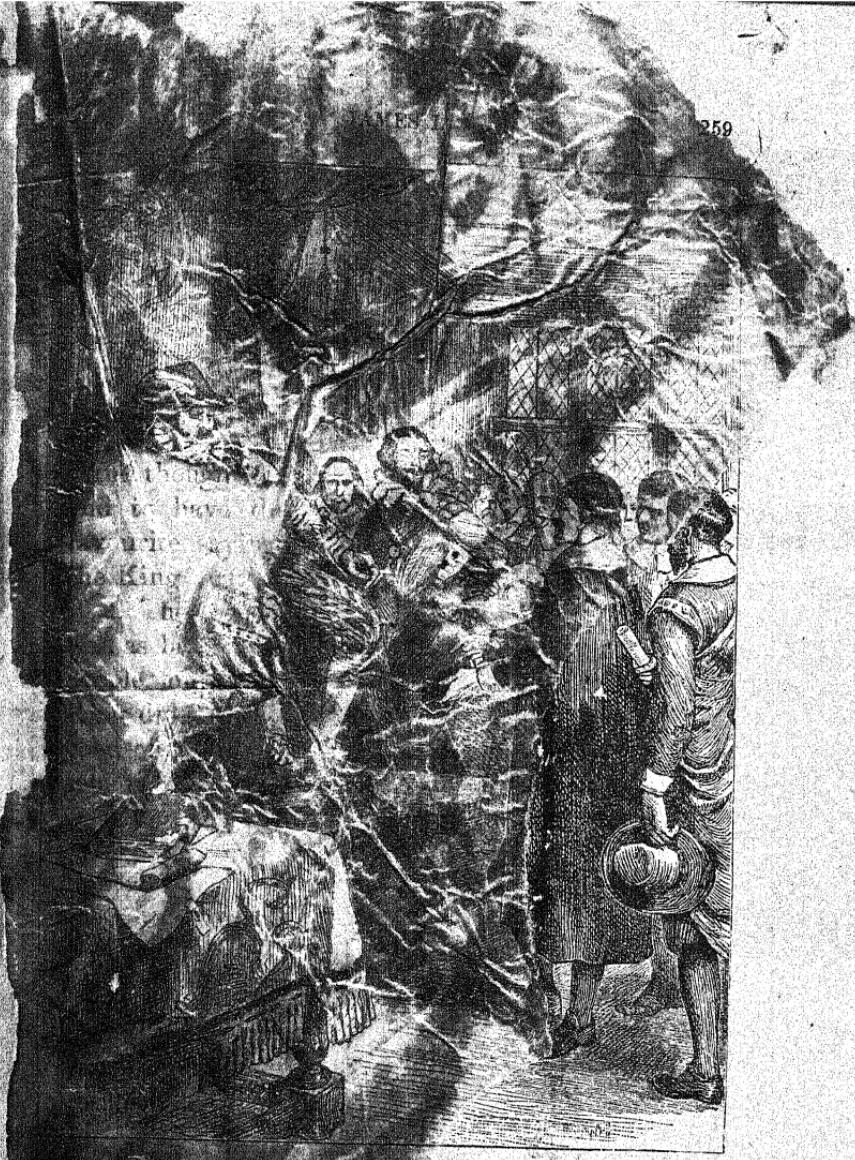
10. **Hampton Court Conference: 1604.**—After a time, James called together a number of the High Church clergy and Puritan ministers, to try to settle the differences that existed between them. The meeting was held at Hampton Court Palace, near London, and is known as the Hampton Court Conference. King James, who was a very learned man, took part in the conference, and gave strong support to the High Church party. After hearing the King's speech, the Bishop of London knelt down and thanked God for having given the country

such a monarch. When some of the Puritans spoke against the bishops, the King made but one reply, "No bishop, no king;"—a saying that has ever since been a kind of proverb. He meant to say that if rank were done away with in the Church, it would soon be done away with in the State also.

11. **New Translation of the Bible.**—The Hampton Court Conference settled none of the differences between the two parties; but it had one grand result. It was there that King James ordered a new translation of the Bible into English to be made. This is known as the "Authorized Version," which is still used in our Churches. It was finished in 1611, after the labour of seven years. The Bible was again revised in Queen Victoria's reign, but the Revised Version has not yet taken the place of King James's Bible.

12. **Gunpowder Plot: 1605.**—When the Roman Catholics saw that James not only did not mean to favour them, but made them pay heavy fines, they were very angry. Robert Catesby and a few of his friends entered into a wild and wicked scheme against the King and Parliament, which is known as the Gunpowder Plot. They hired a cellar under the House of Lords, which they pretended to use as a store for coal and firewood. But under the firewood they hid thirty-six barrels of gunpowder. A man called Guy Fawkes, an Englishman who had served in the Spanish army, was hired to set fire to the powder at the moment when the King was opening Parliament on the fifth of November.

13. The plot was found out. One of the plotters



HAMPTON COURT CONFERENCE.

sent a letter to Lord Mounteagle, whose life he wished to save, warning him not to go to the open-

ing of Parliament. The letter contained these words: "They shall receive a terrible blow, this Parliament, and shall not see who hurts them." It was shown to the King and his ministers; and they ordered the cellars under the House of Lords to be searched. There they found Guy Fawkes, with



ARREST OF GUY FAWKES.

everything ready for the dreadful work. The leaders of the plot were seized, and most of them, along with Fawkes, were put to death. The laws against Roman Catholics were made still more severe. They were not allowed to be doctors or lawyers, and for a time they dared not live in London, so great was the fury of the people against them.

42. JAMES I. (Part II.)

1. Divine Right of Kings.—James had only been about seven years on the British throne, when a great quarrel arose between him and the Parliament. James held strongly to what is called the divine right of kings—that is, he said that he did not receive his power from the people but from God; and that therefore he could rule the kingdom as he thought fit. He claimed to be above the law, and to have the right to do as he pleased. His favourite saying was, “God makes the King, and the King makes the law.”

2. The Parliament held that the law of the land was as binding upon the King as it was upon the people, and that both must obey the law; that the King did not rule for his own pleasure, but for the good of the country. Parliament also claimed the sole right of taxing the people. James, angry at not being allowed to have his own way, dissolved Parliament—that is, he sent the members away—and did not call another Parliament for four years. During these years he raised money by levying taxes in his own name. This struggle for power between the King and the Parliament continued through several reigns. The country was torn to pieces by civil war, which only ended with the ruin of the House of Stewart.

3. Plantation of Ulster: 1611.—During Elizabeth's reign there had been a rising of Irish chiefs. These had been defeated, and their land taken from them. James divided large tracts of this land in the pro-

vince of Ulster, in the north of Ireland, among settlers from England and Scotland. The new settlers were careful, hard-working men, who soon made Ulster the most fertile and wealthy province in Ireland. This planting of colonists in Ireland was called the "Plantation of Ulster."

4. King's Favourites : 1612-1614.—For some years Robert Cecil, Earl of Salisbury, a great statesman and a faithful adviser of the King, was James's chief minister. After his death, Robert Carr, a Scotsman, whom James had made Earl of Somerset, became the King's favourite minister. After Somerset's fall, caused by bad conduct, James chose as his chief adviser George Villiers, whom he made Duke of Buckingham. Many of the blunders which James made were due to the evil advice of Somerset and Buckingham.

5. James's second Parliament : 1614.—At length James called a second Parliament; but as the members of the House of Commons refused to vote him any money till he gave up levying unlawful taxes, he dissolved it at once. Because it did not sit long enough to pass a single measure, it was called the Addled Parliament.

6. James in Scotland : 1617.—Before James left Scotland in 1603, he promised to visit it at least once every three years; but fourteen years passed ere he set foot in it again. It was then seen that his sole object in visiting it was to set up Episcopacy. The Scottish people opposed this; but James found men in the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland and in the Scottish Parliament to do

his bidding, and so for a time the Church of Scotland was made Episcopalian.

7. **Death of Raleigh : 1618.**—Ever since the beginning of the reign, Sir Walter Raleigh had been a prisoner in the Tower, under sentence of death for the part he was said to have taken in the Main Plot. He was now (1616) set free, on promising to show the way to a gold mine in South America. Raleigh only failed to find the gold mine, but his followers quarrelled with some Spanish settlers and burned their town. At length Raleigh had to return to England. When he came back he was executed on the sentence passed on him fifteen years before. This was done to please the King of Spain; for James and Buckingham were at that time hoping to secure a Spanish princess as wife for Charles, Prince of Wales.

8. **American Colonies.**—In 1607 a company of merchants and adventurers established the first permanent English colony in America, on the coast of Virginia, at a place which they called Jamestown, in honour of King James. This colony was under the English crown, and the religion was to be Church of England. Negro slavery was introduced, and by its means great quantities of tobacco were raised for export. The settlement grew in population and wealth, and in a few years became a self-governing community.

9. **Pilgrim Fathers : 1620.**—The English Puritans were still treated so badly that many of them left the country. They feared that they would never have freedom in England to worship God in their



THE PILGRIMS LEAVING ENGLAND.

own way; for James had declared that he would make all men conform to the Established Church, or drive them out of the land. One little company from Nottinghamshire went first to Holland; and after spending some years there, resolved to sail to America. In December 1620, they landed on the coast of the New World from their ship the *Mayflower*, at a place which they called Plymouth, after the name of the port they had last touched at in England. They stepped ashore on a large rock,



PLYMOUTH STONE.

which is still kept, and is called "The Pilgrim Stone." These men were called the Pilgrim Fathers. They were the founders of New England, a state which has since grown into a great nation—the United States of America. Thus the nation of Great Britain was beginning to expand into that Greater Britain which it has planted beyond the seas.

10. James's third Parliament: 1621.—After ruling for seven years without a Parliament, James called together a new one. It was not more obedient to him than the last one had been. It found fault with his favourites, and said that the King had no right to levy taxes on the people in his own name. It also asked him not to marry his son Charles to the daughter of the King of Spain; and it punished Lord Chancellor Bacon for taking bribes. James in anger declared that he would send the leaders of the Parliament to the Tower; and then the Commons passed a motion declaring a free Parliament to be the "birthright" of the people of England.

James tore with his own hand the page on which this was written out of the Journal of the House, dissolved the Parliament, and sent Coke, Selden, Pym, and other two leading members, to prison.

11. **Spanish Match broken off:** 1623.—The hateful Spanish marriage never took place. Buckingham and Charles paid a private visit to Spain, to see the Princess and arrange a treaty. Buckingham quarrelled with the Spanish minister, and when he came back to England he broke off the match. This caused great joy, and when James called a new Parliament in 1624 it voted him money freely, and war was declared with Spain.

12. **Death of James:** 1625.—James died of ague and gout when fifty-nine years of age. While King of Scotland he had married Anne of Denmark. They had three children: Henry, who had died in 1612; Elizabeth, who had married a German prince—Frederick, Elector Palatine of the Rhine—from whom Queen Victoria is descended; and Charles, the Prince of Wales, who succeeded his father.

13. James was vain of his learning. He wrote several books, one of them being on “The Divine Right of Kings.” He was not a good man, and was little respected by his people. His desire for power, and the ease with which he was led by unworthy favourites, kept him at constant strife with his subjects. His favourites called him the “British Solomon;” but the Duke of Sully, a Frenchman, said that James was “the wisest fool in Europe.”



43. CHARLES I. (Part I.)

1625 to 1649: 24 years.

1. **Charles the First.**—Charles was the second son of James the First and Anne of Denmark. His elder brother Henry had died in 1612, leaving Charles heir to the throne. On the death of his father he became King, at the age of twenty-five.

He began his reign with two mistakes. He married Henrietta Maria, the sister of the King of France, a Roman Catholic princess, whose religion was hated by a majority of the people, and whose extravagant habits soon got the King into trouble. He also retained his father's favourite, the Duke of Buckingham, as his chief adviser, though the Duke was generally distrusted and disliked.

2. It was thought that Charles would make a better King than his father had been; but the change of kings brought no change to the people. Charles had been taught by his father that the King could do as he pleased, and so he tried to force Parliament to do his will. The strife between King and Parliament continued through the reign. In the end Charles was defeated, and it cost him his crown and his life.

3. **The first Parliament: 1625.**—The Spanish War, begun in the last reign, was still going on, and Charles was forced to call a Parliament to ask for money to carry on the war. Most of the members of Parliament were Puritans. They were angry at the King for marrying a Roman Catholic, and also for the favour he showed the Duke of Buckingham, who really continued to rule the land, as he had done in the days of James.

4. Instead, therefore, of giving the King the large sum of money that he wanted, the Commons gave him £140,000, with tonnage and poundage for one year only. Tonnage or tunnage was a tax on every tun of wine brought into the country; while poundage was a tax of so much per pound on all other

imported articles. These taxes had been granted to other monarchs for life, and Charles was very angry when he saw that his subjects were not willing to trust him to make a right use of their money.

5. Cadiz.—By the Duke of Buckingham's advice Charles now sent a fleet and an army to take Cadiz, a sea-port in Spain. This was so badly managed that the fleet and army came back without doing anything at all. The people laughed at Charles, and some one made a rhyme which said,—

“There was a fleet that went to Spain ;
When it got there, it came back again !”

6. The second Parliament : 1626.—Charles being in great difficulty for money, called a second Parliament; but the Commons would not give him a supply until Parliament had brought Buckingham to trial for the bad advice he had given the King. Charles, fearing that his favourite would be punished, dissolved Parliament before the trial was finished. He then levied taxes in his own name, and raised money by forcing wealthy subjects to give him loans. In this way he got a large sum of money from those who would rather pay than go to prison. John Hampden, a gentleman of Buckinghamshire, and a member of the late House of Commons, was among those who refused to lend his majesty the sum asked for, and was accordingly thrown into prison.

7. La Rochelle : 1627.—At this time the King of France was trying to put down the French Prot-

estants, whose greatest stronghold was La Rochelle, on the Bay of Biscay. In the hope of making Buckingham popular with the English people, the King sent him to France with an army to help the Protestants; but he failed, and had to return to England in disgrace. In the following year a second army was raised; but before it could do anything, Buckingham was murdered at Portsmouth by an officer whom he had offended. Charles thus lost his favourite minister—one of the worst advisers a king ever had.

8. **Petition of Right:** 1628.—Before the death of Buckingham, Charles had called a third Parliament, to obtain money to carry on the war with France. This Parliament drew up the famous deed, the Petition of Right so called, because it contained a statement of what were regarded as the rights of the people; and told Charles that he must sign it before they granted him any money. Charles was most unwilling to do so, for it struck a heavy blow at his kingly power. It declared that the King must not levy taxes or force the people to lend him money without the consent of Parliament; that he must not keep any one in prison without a trial; and that soldiers were not to be lodged in private houses against the will of the owners.

9. Finding that he could not get money on any other terms, the King at length signed the Petition of Right, and the Commons gave him about £400,000. But it soon became plain that he did not mean to be bound by it. Having no faith in the King, the House of Commons declared that any minister who

levied taxes without the consent of Parliament was an enemy of his country. The Speaker tried to adjourn the House—that is, to close Parliament for a short time—but he was held down in the chair till the motion was passed. When Charles heard of what had been done in the House of Commons, he sent nine of the members to prison. Sir John Eliot, who had proposed the motion that had displeased the King, and the two members who had held the Speaker in the chair, were sentenced to pay heavy fines. Eliot refused to pay, and was kept in the Tower till he died.

10. **Earl of Strafford.**—For eleven years, from 1629 to 1640, Charles ruled without a Parliament. His chief minister was Sir Thomas Wentworth, afterwards Earl of Strafford, who, though he had helped to draw up the Petition of Right, was now on the side of the King. His favourite plan, which he called “Thorough,” was to put down the King’s enemies by means of a standing army.

11. **Star Chamber.**—The Government was carried on and money was raised chiefly by means of the Court of the Star Chamber. This court fined those who refused to pay the King’s unlawful taxes, and punished any who dared to find fault with the Government. Men were put in prison, whipped, branded with hot irons, and some even had their ears cut off.

12. **High Commission Court.**—There was another court, called the Court of the High Commission, presided over by Archbishop Laud. It fined and put in prison all who did not support the Episco-



JOHN HAMPDEN.

pal Church. The doings of these two courts made the people more than ever determined to assert their rights.

13. Ship-money levied in 1634.—Finding it difficult to obtain enough of money when there was no Parliament, Charles revived an old tax called “ship-money.” In olden times the King had been allowed to levy this tax on coast towns in time of war, to enable him to fit out a fleet; but the power had not been used for hundreds of years. The excuse made for reviving it was that there were pirates round the coasts of England and Ireland, and that the Dutch were driving English fishermen out of the Northern seas.

14. Trial of John Hampden: 1637.—The Puritan party said that the King had no right to levy ship-money on inland towns in time of peace. They feared that ship-money would be used to support an army against them, and they opposed it with all their might. John Hampden refused to pay the tax, and the case was tried in court by order of the King. The judges, who were afraid of the King, decided against Hampden, and declared that the King had a right to levy the tax when he thought the country was in danger. In spite of this decision the great mass of the people sided with Hampden, and so the struggle between King and people gathered strength and became more bitter every day. Many Puritans emigrated to America at this time. John Hampden and his cousin Oliver Cromwell had embarked in a vessel in the Thames, but they were prevented from sailing by the King's orders.

44. CHARLES I. (Part II.)

1. Charles crowned in Scotland: 1633.—Charles visited Scotland in 1633. He was received with great joy, and was crowned in Holyrood Palace at Edinburgh. It was soon seen that his object in going to Scotland was to establish Episcopacy—that is, a Church in which the chief clergy are bishops. This the people resisted, and he lost the favour both of the people and of the Scottish Parliament. Charles did not allow the Scottish

Parliament to meet, and for some years afterwards all public business was in the hands of the King and his ministers.

2. National Covenant in Scotland : 1638.—While the dispute about ship-money was going on in England, the struggle of the Presbyterians in Scotland against Episcopacy still continued. In 1637 a Prayer-book prepared by Archbishop Laud was ordered to be used in the Scottish Church. It is said that when the Dean of Edinburgh began to read prayers from it in St. Giles's Church, an old woman named Jenny Geddes at once threw at his head the stool on which she had been sitting. This was followed by great rioting on the part of the people. They petitioned the King against the Service-book ; but Charles refused to listen.

3. It was then resolved to draw up the deed which came to be known as the National Covenant. It was signed by thousands of all ranks, and bound all who signed it to defend their religion with their lives. This famous deed is the origin of the name "Covenanters," so well known in Scottish history. The Covenanters prepared for war, and seized the Castles of Edinburgh and Stirling. Charles at once led an army into Scotland to punish his subjects. The two armies came within sight of each other at Duns, in Berwickshire. When the King saw that his army was much the smaller of the two, instead of fighting, he made a treaty with the Scots, and returned to London.

4. The Scottish Parliament met and made laws to secure the freedom of Scotland. Charles would

not agree to respect these laws, and treated the Scots as if they were at war with him. He ordered England not to trade with Scotland, and he seized the ships of the Scottish merchants. In 1639 General Alexander Leslie with a Scottish army crossed the Border, and defeated some of Charles's soldiers at Newburn on the Tyne, near Newcastle. The King now made peace with the Scots, and agreed to pay them £5,000 every week while the army remained in England until affairs were settled.

5. **Short Parliament:** 1640.—It was now eleven years since Parliament had met in England. Matters had been going from bad to worse, and Charles was advised to call together a new Parliament. He did so, but the Commons raised the old question of settling grievances before voting money. The King took his usual course, and dissolved Parliament once more. It had sat for only three weeks, and is known as the Short Parliament.

6. **Long Parliament:** 1640.—Charles now called his fifth and last Parliament. It is known as the Long Parliament, because it lasted nearly twenty years. The first thing it did was to pass a law, to which the King gave his approval, that it could not be dissolved or dismissed without its own consent. It then set about the trial of the King's favourites, Strafford and Laud.

7. Strafford was charged with treason, condemned to death, and beheaded. Archbishop Laud was thrown into prison, where he remained for four years, and then he also was beheaded. The Court of the Star Chamber was abolished, so that unlaw-

ful taxes could no longer be levied. The Court of High Commission, which had to do with Church matters, was also abolished ; and all images, altars, and crucifixes in churches were ordered to be destroyed. These things show how determined the English people were to assert their rights against the King and his ministers.

8. **Grand Remonstrance : 1641.**—The Commons, led by Pym, who had gained so much authority over Parliament that he was called King Pym, then drew up a famous paper, known as the "Grand Remonstrance." It set forth all the illegal acts of the King and his ministers since the beginning of the reign. It was presented to the King, and printed copies of it were scattered over the country. The King would not yield, and the quarrel grew fiercer every day. In the following year Charles did a very foolish thing. He went to the House of Commons with a body of troops to arrest five of its members—Pym, Hampden, Haselrig, Hollis, and Strode—who had specially offended him ; but being warned of his coming, they escaped before he entered the House.

9. Seeing that these members were absent, the King asked the Speaker where they were. The Speaker, kneeling, begged the King's pardon for not answering, saying, "that he could neither speak nor see but by command of the House." Vexed that he could learn nothing further, Charles left the hall amid angry cries of "Privilege ! privilege !" These cries meant that the King had no right to interfere with members of Parliament in the performance of their duties.



CAVALIER AND ROUNDHEAD.

London was thrown into great excitement, and the streets were filled with people who called out against the King.

10. **Beginning of Civil War : 1642.**^{11a} Charles in fear fled to York ; but even yet he would have his own way, and was blind to his coming fate. When the Commons asked him to give up the army to them, his reply was, " No, not for an hour ! " From York Charles went to Hull, which was then a place of great importance. Whoever held Hull was master of the north of England. Charles found the gates closed against him. The governor was on the side of the Parliament, and refused to open the gates to the King. It was plain that nothing could be settled

without fighting, and the Civil War began. Charles raised his standard at Nottingham, August 23rd. The Earl of Essex mustered the army of the Parliament at Northampton; and now King and people were face to face in a determined struggle.

11. **Cavaliers.**—The King's men got the name of Cavaliers, from their soldier-like manners and their gay dress. They included most of the nobility and gentry and many of the clergy. The leaders of the royal armies were, besides Charles himself, his nephews Prince Rupert and Prince Maurice, the Duke of Newcastle, and Lord Falkland.

12. **Roundheads.**—Men on the side of the Parliament were called Roundheads, from the Puritan fashion of wearing the hair closely cropped, instead of in long flowing locks, as was common with the gentry in those days. The Puritans were chiefly tradesmen and shopkeepers—the middle-class men of London and other large towns; but they also included a few of the upper classes. On the side of Parliament were the Earl of Essex, the Earl of M^{is}chester, Sir Thomas Fairfax, and, greatest of all, Oliver Cromwell.

45. CHARLES I. (Part III.)

1. **Civil War: 1642.**—The first battle was fought at Edgehill, where neither side gained a victory. Several battles followed, all of which were won by the Royalists. At Chalgrove Field, John Hampden, who had suffered imprisonment rather than pay

ship-money, was killed in 1643. Pym died the same year, worn out with anxiety.

2. Charles next laid siege to Gloucester; but Essex, moving quickly from London with an army, met and defeated the royal forces in the first Battle of Newbury. This was the turning-point of the strife. A captain of horse in the army of the Parliament, named Oliver Cromwell, saw that the cause of the King's success lay in his well-trained soldiers, and he resolved that the soldiers of the Parliament should soon be a match for the King's Cavaliers.

3. **Cromwell's Ironsides.**—He began by drilling a body of horsemen, who soon became famous as the Ironsides of Oliver Cromwell. In 1644 the King won a slight victory; but he was afterwards defeated at Marston Moor, where the Roundheads were aided by a Scottish army. In this battle Cromwell's Ironsides swept everything before them. After the battle, York and Newcastle were taken by the troops of the Parliament. In the same year a second Battle of Newbury took place, in which the King was again defeated.

4. **Self-denying Ordinance : 1645.**—In order to remodel the army and get rid of incompetent commanders, Parliament passed a law which required all officers who were members of Parliament to resign, and, as Cromwell said, "deny themselves and their private interests for the public good." This was called the Self-denying Ordinance, and the rearranged army, formed largely of "God-fearing men," was called the "New Model." Cromwell's services

were so valuable that they were retained by a special Act of Parliament.

5. **Final Defeat of Charles.**—In 1645 Charles fought his last battle at Naseby. He was totally defeated, and was no longer able to oppose the Parliament. At Naseby the King's private papers were taken, and these proved that Charles, while trying to come to terms with the Parliament, was planning to bring foreign troops into England. This discovery was more damaging to the royal cause than the defeat itself.

6. **Scotland's Share in the Civil War.**—In 1643 the Parliaments of England and Scotland signed the Solemn League and Covenant, establishing the Presbyterian form of worship as the state religion of England, and 20,000 Scottish troops, under the Earl of Leven (Alexander Leslie), crossed the Border to aid the Parliament against the King. They were present at Marston Moor and other hard-fought fields. In 1645, while the Scottish army was in England, the Marquis of Montrose, who had at first been a Covenanter, gathered an army of Highlanders and Irishmen to fight for Charles. He gained six battles in Scotland, and was marching to England to help the King, when he was defeated by General David Leslie at Philiphaugh, in Selkirkshire.

7. After the Battle of Naseby, Charles in 1646 gave himself up to the Scottish army at Newark. The Scots offered to fight for him if he would sign the National Covenant; but this he would not do. When the Scottish army was going back to Scotland, Charles, by his own desire, was given up to



PLACES OF INTEREST.

- | | | |
|----------------|------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1642. Hull. | 1643. Chalgrove. | 1645. Naseby. |
| " Edgehill. | 1644. Cropredy Bridge. | " Philiphaugh. |
| " Oxford. | " Marston Moor. | " Rowton Heath. |
| 1643. Bristol. | " York. | 1646. Newark. |
| " Gloucester. | " Newcastle. | 1647. Carisbrooke Castle. |
| " Newbury (1). | " Newbury (2). | 1648. Preston. |

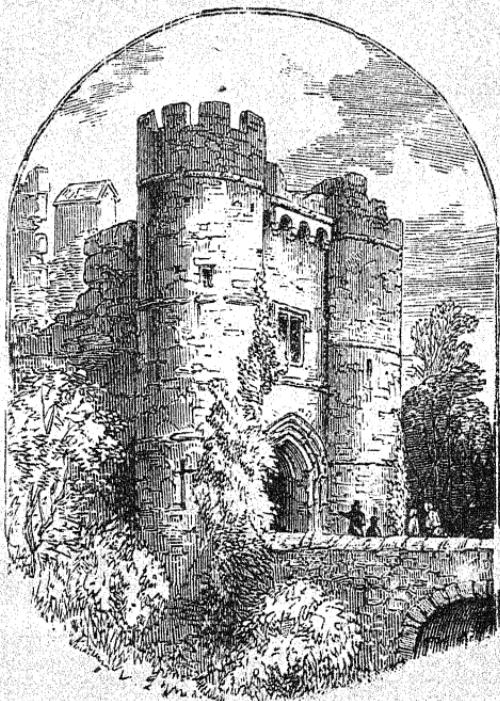
the English Parliament by the Scots, on condition that their arrears of pay, amounting to £400,000, should be paid, and that no harm was to be done to the person of the King.

8. Two years after this, when the people of Scotland thought that the King's life was in danger, they sent an army, under the Duke of Hamilton, to help him. It was defeated at Preston by Cromwell, who pushed northwards to Edinburgh, where he set up a government which was unfriendly to Charles. Hamilton, who had been taken prisoner, was executed.

9. **Presbyterians and Independents.**—The English Parliament was now divided into two parties—the Presbyterians and the Independents. The Presbyterians wanted only to lessen the King's power, and make him rule by the advice of the Parliament; the Independents, of whom Cromwell was the head, wanted to do without a King altogether.

10. **Imprisonment of Charles.**—Charles, by Cromwell's orders, was seized by Cornet Joyce in Northamptonshire and taken to Hampton Court. He escaped from that place to the Isle of Wight. He had, however, to take refuge in Carisbrooke Castle, where he was watched more closely than ever.

11. **Rump Parliament.**—Both the Parliament and the army had tried to come to an understanding with the King, but for a time he would not agree to the terms laid down by either party. It was while the King was a prisoner in the Isle of Wight that the Scots invaded England and the Royalists rose to aid them. This renewal of the war made



CARISBROOKE CASTLE, ISLE OF WIGHT.

a compromise impossible. In the absence of the army Charles had come to terms with the Parliament, and agreed to establish Presbyterianism. But the army was determined to bring "the capital and grand author of all their troubles" to trial. To this neither the Presbyterians in the House of Commons nor the members of the House of Lords would agree. When Cromwell returned from Edinburgh, after the defeat of the Scots, he ordered Colonel Pride not to allow the Presbyterian mem-



CHARLES THE FIRST ON THE WAY TO EXECUTION.

bers to enter the House of Commons. Only about fifty Independents were allowed to take their seats. This is what is known as "Pride's Purge." The members present, forming what is called the Rump Parliament, at once voted thanks to Cromwell, and resolved on the trial of the King. When the Lords refused to agree to this, the Commons declared that their consent was unnecessary.

12. **Trial of the King: 1649.**—A High Court of Justice was formed for the trial of Charles. It consisted of the members of the Rump Parliament and some officers from the army, with John Brad-

shaw, a lawyer, as president. He was charged with breaking the laws of the country, and with making war on his subjects. The King refused to be tried by this Court, which had not been formed according to the laws of the land, and asked where were the Peers, who alone had the right to try him. He also said that the blame of the Civil War rested with the Parliament, as they first took up arms. The judges would not listen to his appeals, as they had made up their minds that the King should die. For seven days the trial went on, and thirty-two witnesses were examined. When the King entered the court on the eighth day, he noticed that all his judges were dressed in *red*. On that day he received sentence of death as a tyrant, traitor, murderer, and enemy of his country.

13. **Death of Charles.**—Three days afterwards, he was beheaded in front of his own palace of White-hall. A deep groan burst from the people when his bleeding head was held up by the headsman, who cried out, "This is the head of a traitor!" Charles is the only King of England who died on the scaffold.

14. He was a good husband, a kind father, and a faithful friend; but he was a bad King. His life was ruined by his desire for sole power, and by the lessons which his father had taught him on the divine right of kings. He left three sons—Charles, James, and Henry—two of whom became King in turn; and three daughters, one of whom, Elizabeth, died of a broken heart after her father's death. Another daughter, Mary, married the Prince of Orange, and was the mother of William the Third.

46. THE COMMONWEALTH.

1649 to 1660: 11 years.

1. **The Commonwealth.**—After the execution of Charles the First, the Commons declared that government by a single person was "unnecessary, burdensome, dangerous, and ought to be abolished." They therefore abolished the office of King, and declared England to be a Commonwealth—that is, a form of government in which the power rests with the people. The House of Lords was next swept away, for the Commons voted that it was "useless, dangerous, and ought to be abolished." A Council of State was then appointed, consisting of forty-one members chosen by the Parliament. Bradshaw was president of the Council, and the great poet John Milton was Latin secretary. The Long Parliament, elected in 1640, still sat, but Cromwell and his army were the real rulers of the land.

2. **Cromwell in Ireland.**—The people of Ireland rose against the Commonwealth, and wished to make Charles the Second their King. Cromwell, who was made Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, landed near Dublin with 10,000 men. It was a small force; but they were men who did not know what it was to be beaten. Cromwell used the people of Ireland very cruelly, and at Drogheda he put the garrison of 2,000 men to the sword. He treated Dundalk and Wexford in the same way; and thus for about ten months he passed through the land in such a whirlwind of fire and slaughter that the horror of his visitation has never been forgotten.



CROMWELL AND MILTON.

To this day, in moments of anger, the Irish people often say, "The curse of Cromwell on ye." In this way he put down the King's party in Ireland.

3. Cromwell in Scotland : 1650.—When the Scots heard of the death of Charles the First, they proclaimed his son Charles King of Scotland, and asked

him to sign the National Covenant. Charles, who was in Holland, did not wish to do this, so he sent the Marquis of Montrose to Scotland to raise troops and make him King without the help of the Covenanters; but the Marquis was defeated, and then executed at Edinburgh. Charles then agreed to sign the Covenant, and came to Scotland to be crowned. Leaving others to finish the work he had begun in Ireland, Cromwell went to Scotland to put down the rising there. When he reached the Border, he found the country laid waste. The Ironsides had thus to face famine—an enemy against which their swords were of no use.

4. The Scots, under David Leslie, lay near Edinburgh. As often as Cromwell changed his position, Leslie followed. His plan was not to fight Cromwell, but to let hunger do its work. At length Cromwell was so shut in near Dunbar, that he had no choice but to try to force his way through the Scottish army, which was in a very strong position. Suddenly he saw the Scots leaving the hill on which they were posted and coming down to fight him on the plain. Cromwell's Ironsides routed the Scots, and drove them before them so easily that the battle is known as the "*Dunbar Drove*."

5. Charles crowned and defeated.—On New-Year's day, 1651, Charles was crowned at Scone, near Perth, the site of an ancient abbey and royal palace, where the Scottish Kings used to be crowned. With the young King at their head the Scots got past Cromwell, and marched into England. He overtook them at Worcester, where he gained a

great victory, which he called his "crowning mercy." After the Battle of Worcester, Cromwell returned to Scotland; and when he came away in 1652, he left General Monk to keep the people from rising. Charles, dressed as a working-man, wandered about for a month, trying to get away from England. At one time he hid for a day in the branches of an oak tree at Boscobel, and watched the red-coats of Oliver seeking for him in vain. He even heard some of them say that they knew he was not far away. At length he reached the coast of Sussex, and escaped in a coal-boat to France.

6. Dutch War: 1652.—At this time Dutch ships were carrying goods for nearly all Europe. In 1651 the English made a law that no goods should be brought into England except in English ships, or in vessels belonging to the country from which the goods came. This led to a war with Holland. The Dutch leaders were Van Tromp, De Ruyter, and De Witt, while the English had the famous sailor Blake. Van Tromp gained a victory over the English fleet; and so pleased was he with his success, that he sailed through the Channel with a broom at his mast-head, meaning by this that he would sweep the English ships off the sea. In 1653 a great battle was fought between the English and the Dutch fleets off Portland, in which Admiral Blake defeated Van Tromp. A few months later the Dutch admiral was killed off Texel, in a battle with General Monk.

7. End of the Long Parliament. —A quarrel having arisen between the Parliament and Cromwell, he



"TAKE AWAY THAT BAUBLE!"

marched to the House with 300 soldiers. Leaving these outside, he entered, took his seat, and listened to the speeches of the members. But when they were about to pass a bill to keep themselves in power, he walked into the middle of the room, put his hat on, and began to rail against the members. At length he said, "Get you gone, and give way to honester men." He stamped on the floor; the soldiers poured in. "Take away that bauble!" said he, pointing to the mace—an ornamental staff of

authority—which lay on the table. The Hall was soon cleared; and Oliver locked the door and carried off the key. This was the expulsion of the Long Parliament.

8. **Barebone's Parliament.**—A new Parliament was formed from the warmest supporters of Cromwell, called Barebone's Parliament, after one of its leading members named Praise-God Barbone or Barebones. This body gave up its power into the hands of Cromwell, who took the title of Lord Protector of the Commonwealth, and a council of twenty-one persons. An “Instrument of Government” was also drawn up, which said that the Protector was to be general by land and by sea; that all questions of peace and war should be decided by him and his council; that Parliament should be summoned every three years and sit for not less than five months; that all taxes were to be levied by Parliament, and a change made in electing members of Parliament. The first Parliament was to meet in 1654.

47. CROMWELL, LORD PROTECTOR.

1. **Cromwell's first Parliament: 1654.**—The first Protectorate Parliament consisted of four hundred members for England, thirty for Scotland, and thirty for Ireland. It was the first Parliament that represented the whole of the British Isles. Cromwell, who was now King in all but the name, wanted to rule the country by the advice of Parliament; but he could not agree with the members, some of whom



OLIVER CROMWELL.

objected to his position of Protector, so he dissolved it, and did not call another for eighteen months. During this time a great many plots were formed against him.

2. Cromwell refuses the Crown.—Cromwell's second Parliament met in 1656, and offered him the title of King, which he refused; but he arranged that his son should be Lord Protector after him. He

now tried to form a new House of Lords; but all England laughed at him, as the old nobles would not sit in it, and he had to fill their places with persons who had risen in the army, but who had once been tradesmen or ploughboys. Parliament was against his new House of Lords, so Cromwell dissolved it. After this he ruled alone.

3. **Mistress of the Sea.**—Cromwell ruled the land well, and not only kept good order at home, but made England feared abroad. Under him this country again rose to be one of the leading nations in Europe, and the "Mistress of the Sea." In a war between England and Spain, the English were the victors, and Spain had to give up to England the island of Jamaica. France, also, gave up to her the town of Dunkirk.

4. The Barbary pirates, long the terror of the people of many countries, were swept from the sea by the ships of England; and the Protestants of the Alps were allowed to live in peace when it was known that Cromwell had ordered, in a letter written by John Milton, then his secretary, that they were to be left to worship God as they pleased.

5. **The Death of Cromwell.**—Cromwell, however, was not happy. Plot after plot was formed against him; and a book was written called *Killing no Murder*, in which his death was said to be needed by the nation. After reading this book his mind was filled with fear. He ever afterwards carried pistols, and wore armour under his clothes. He never slept more than three nights in the same

room. At length his health gave way, and he died in 1658, at the age of fifty-nine. He had been Lord Protector five years.

6. **Richard Cromwell.**—Richard, Oliver Cromwell's eldest son, now became Lord Protector. He was neither a statesman nor a soldier, and did not know how to keep the army in order. He was soon tired of trying to rule England, and in eight months he retired to his farm in the country, and left the people to do as they liked about another ruler. It is said that many years after his abdication he visited Westminster; and when the attendant, who did not know him, showed him the throne, he said, "Yes; I have not seen that chair since I sat in it myself in 1659."

7. The people were now afraid that they would be ruled by the army. General Monk, who had been left by Cromwell to rule Scotland, came to London with his soldiers. He did not tell any one what he was going to do until he got there. He then said that there must be a free Parliament—that is, a Parliament chosen by the people, and not by the army. The Long Parliament met for the last time, and dissolved itself. A new Parliament was elected, which agreed to ask Charles the Second to return to England.

**48. CHARLES II. (Part I.)**

1660 to 1685: 25 years.

1. **Charles the Second.**—Charles the Second was the eldest son of Charles the First and Henrietta Maria of France. As we have seen, he was crowned King of Scotland on the first day of the year 1651. After that he led a Scottish army into England, but was defeated at Worcester. He then escaped

to the Continent, where he lived in exile during the time of the Commonwealth.

2. **The Restoration.**—Charles entered London on his thirtieth birthday (the twenty-ninth of May 1660). The people received him with great joy: the road was strewn with flowers, and the bells rang out a merry welcome. “It must have been my own fault,” said the King, “that I did not come before, for I find no one but declares that he is glad to see me.” The army was against Charles; but it could do nothing to prevent his return, for it was without a leader. It was soon disbanded, leaving hardly a trace to show what it had been. About thirty of the men who had taken a leading part in the trial and execution of Charles the First were tried, and ten of them were put to death. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton his son-in-law, and Bradshaw the president of the council that had condemned the late King, were taken out of their graves and hanged.

3. **The “Merry Monarch.”**—The people soon found that they had not much cause for joy. Charles was a selfish, wicked man, who cared for nothing but his own pleasure. He filled his court with worthless men and women, who had no interest in the welfare of the country. But his father’s fate and his own exile had taught him a lesson which he never afterwards forgot—that he should not quarrel too much with his Parliament. The “Merry Monarch,” as he was called, had no wish, as he said to his brother, “to go on his travels again.”

4. **Clarendon Code.**—The Church of England

service had not been allowed during the Commonwealth. Charles, however, determined, like his father and grandfather, to allow the Prayer-book service only; and for this purpose four Acts of Parliament were passed to put down all who did not agree with him. The Puritans refused to attend the services of the Church of England, and were called Dissenters, because they dissented from the ways of the Church, and wished to separate from it.

5. The Corporation Act allowed none but members of the Church of England to be magistrates. The Act of Uniformity required all ministers to be ordained by bishops, and to use the Book of Common Prayer in public worship. More than one thousand ministers, who would not do as the Act required, were turned out of their churches, and forbidden to preach even in private houses. Many Dissenters were put in prison. One of these was John Bunyan, once a tinker, afterwards a Baptist preacher, who was kept twelve years in Bedford Jail. During his imprisonment he wrote his famous book the *Pilgrim's Progress*. The Conventicle Act was passed to punish all those who attended open-air preachings, or conventicles as they were called. The Five Mile Act forbade the ministers who had been turned out of their churches to come within five miles of a town.

6. These four Acts were called the Clarendon Code. They received the name from Edward Hyde, Earl of Clarendon, one of the King's chief ministers. He had been with the King in exile, and his daughter

became the wife of James, Duke of York—the brother of Charles—who was afterwards James the Second.

7. **Scottish Church.**—The Scottish people were Presbyterians, and Charles, by signing the National Covenant in 1650, had pledged himself to allow the Church of Scotland to remain Presbyterian. He did not, however, keep his word, as he disliked Presbyterianism, saying of it that it was not a religion fit for a gentleman. He then forced the Episcopal form of worship upon the Scottish people. Bishops were placed over their ministers, and the Prayer-book was ordered to be used in their churches.

8. To weaken the Presbyterians, three of their leaders were put to death. The chief of these was the Marquis of Argyle, who had placed the crown on the King's head at Sccone. The Presbyterians, in great alarm, sent a minister named James Sharpe to London, to remind the King of the promise he had made in 1650. Sharpe was won over to the King's party, and returned to Scotland as Archbishop of St. Andrews.

9. Nearly four hundred Presbyterian ministers were driven from their churches because they refused to conduct the services according to the Episcopal forms. The Covenanters retired to the hills, and held open-air meetings or conventicles; at which many of them stood during service with a Bible in the one hand, and a sword or a gun, for defence, in the other. The people were kept in great fear by bodies of soldiers whose duty was to break up these meetings. The ministers who preached were liable

to be put to death, and those who went to hear them were fined.

10. Great Plague: 1665.—In the summer of 1665, London was visited by a terrible plague, which carried off about 100,000 persons. Thousands fled from the city. The King and Court removed to



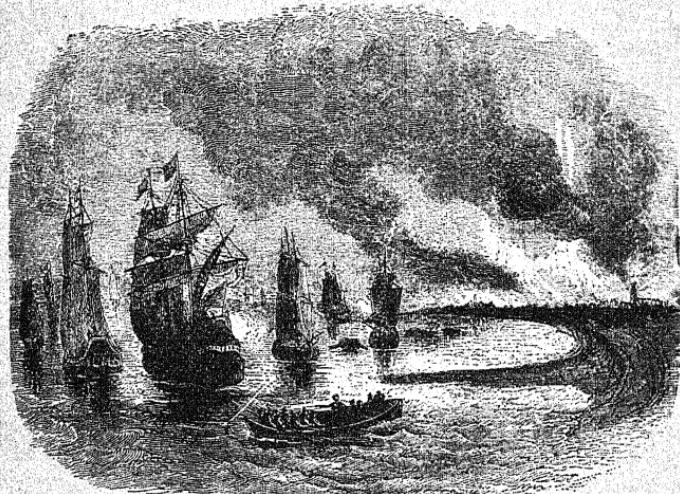
A STREET IN LONDON DURING THE PLAGUE.

Oxford. Shops and markets were closed. Grass grew in the streets. Everywhere there was silence, broken only by the rumbling of the dead-cart and the wailing of the sorrowful people.

11. Great Fire: 1666.—In the following year the

great fire of London broke out, on the night of Sunday, September 2nd. A high wind caused the flames to spread quickly among the wooden houses. The fire burned fiercely for four days, and laid waste a wide space in the city. Thirteen thousand houses and eighty-nine churches, one of which was St. Paul's Cathedral, were destroyed ; but, wonderful to tell, not more than eight lives were lost. A monument near London Bridge still marks the spot where the flames burst out. The fire, however, did good to London. It burned out the remains of the plague, and it allowed the worst parts of the city to be rebuilt in a better form, with wider streets and healthier houses. The greater part of the old city had been wood ; it was now built of brick and stone. Sir Christopher Wren, the most famous architect of the period, took charge of the work, and also built the present St. Paul's. He lies buried under the dome of this his grandest work.

12. First Dutch War: 1665-67.—The English merchants, not pleased with the share the Dutch had in the commerce of Europe, wished for war, and war was declared. One sea-fight off the North Foreland lasted for four days. Here the Dutch had the best of it ; but three weeks later in another fight they were defeated. Still the war continued ; and two years later a Dutch fleet sailed up the Thames, destroyed a fort at Sheerness, and burned many ships. Never before had an enemy's guns been heard by the people of London, and they have never been heard since. Soon after this, peace was made by the Treaty of Breda.



THE DUTCH FLEET IN THE THAMES.

13. **The "Cabal" Ministry: 1667.**—The Earl of Clarendon, who had been Charles's chief minister, lost the King's favour. He was charged with treason by the Commons, and had to flee to France, where he spent the rest of his life. Charles then chose as his ministers five men—Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale. The first letters of those men's names formed by a curious chance the word C A B A L, which was derived from the Hebrew, and meant a secret committee. Ever since that time the word "Cabal" has been given to any set of men who try to manage the affairs of the country for their own profit, and not for the good of the people. In this ministry the Duke of Buckingham was Prime Minister.

14. **Triple Alliance: 1668.**—The Cabal Ministry

being anxious to win the favour of the people, formed the Triple Alliance with Holland and Sweden against France. This alliance was very popular in England, for France was the most dangerous power in Europe.

15. **Secret Treaty of Dover: 1670.**—Charles made a secret treaty with the French King against Holland. Louis the Fourteenth, then the most powerful monarch in Europe, wished to conquer Holland, not only to extend his own kingdom, but also the power of Romanism. By this treaty Charles was to help France against the Dutch, and to receive £200,000 a year while the war lasted. He was to declare himself a Roman Catholic; and if his subjects rose against him, the French King was to help him with troops against them.

16. **Second Dutch War: 1672-74.**—The result of this secret treaty was that war was declared against Holland in 1672 by both England and France. Charles seized £1,300,000 of money belonging to various London bankers and merchants, and was thus provided with funds to carry on the war. The Dutch were defeated both on land and sea. Peace was made in 1674, and so all supplies of money from the French King were stopped. Charles in 1676 degraded himself by making another secret treaty, by which he bound himself to join with no foreign power without the consent of France. In return for this he received a pension of £100,000 a year, which he spent on idle and wicked pleasures, and altogether neglected affairs of State.

49. CHARLES II. (Part II.)

1. **Test Act**: 1673.—Both Charles and his brother James, the Duke of York, were attached to the Roman Catholic religion. The King wished to grant religious freedom both to them and to the Protestant dissenters; but the Parliament objected. Instead of carrying out the King's wishes, Parliament passed the Test Act, which forced all who were not members of the Church of England to give up any public offices held by them. The King had never dared to own himself a Roman Catholic; but his brother, who had been publicly received into the Romish Church, was forced by this new law to give up the command of the fleet. Alarmed at the decided stand made by Parliament against Romanism, Charles tried to win favour by marrying his niece Mary, the daughter of James, to his nephew William of Orange, President of the Dutch Republic, and head of the Protestant party on the Continent. They afterwards ascended the throne of the United Kingdom.

2. **Titus Oates**: 1678.—In 1678, a disgraced clergyman, named Titus Oates, said that a plot had been formed by the Roman Catholics to murder the King, destroy London, and kill all the Protestants in the city. The story was false, but many believed it. The memory of the Great Fire was still fresh in people's minds, and in their imagination they saw those scenes of horror repeated, with wholesale murder added. Two thousand Roman Catholics were thrown into prison, some were even put to death, and an Act was passed forbidding Roman

Catholics from sitting as members of Parliament. Titus Oates received a pension of £1,200 a year, and was called "the saviour of the country."

3. **Covenanters in Scotland:** 1679.—In Scotland the quarrel between the Covenanters and the Government led to many cruel deeds. On Magus Moor, near St. Andrews, a band of men lay in wait for one of their enemies—a favourite of Archbishop Sharpe. The Archbishop himself, happening to come along the road in his carriage, was seized and put to death before the eyes of his daughter. It was a fierce and cruel act.

4. Field-meetings were often broken up by the King's troopers, and the Covenanters began to attend such meetings armed with guns and swords. At Drumclog they fought so bravely that they routed a body of soldiers led by Graham of Claverhouse; but a few weeks later a battle took place at Bothwell Bridge, in which the Covenanters were defeated and treated with merciless cruelty. The treatment of the Scottish Covenanters became more severe than ever. For no other crime than wishing to worship God as their fathers had done, men were shot down in the fields and hunted like wild beasts over the moors and mountains.

5. **Habeas Corpus Act:** 1679.—This famous Act, second only in importance to Magna Carta, was passed through Parliament by the Council of State which had taken the place of the Cabal Ministry. Kings had often put persons who offended them in prison without a trial, and had kept them there through long and weary years, sometimes for life

But by the Habeas Corpus Act no person may be kept in prison beyond a certain time without a fair trial; and no prisoner once discharged can be tried again for the same offence. Habeas Corpus is a writ (written order) addressed to the keeper of a prison, requiring him to produce the prisoner for trial at a certain time. It is so called from its opening words, meaning, "Thou art to produce the body."

6. **Exclusion Bill:** 1679.—Charles had no lawful children who could succeed him. He had a son, the Duke of Monmouth, to whose mother he had not been married. The lawful heir to the crown was the King's brother James, Duke of York. A Bill was brought into Parliament to exclude James from the throne because he was a Roman Catholic. To save his brother Charles dissolved Parliament, and afterwards closed the new Parliament seven times to prevent the Bill being discussed. At last in 1680 the Exclusion Bill, though passed by the Commons, was thrown out by the Lords.

7. **Whig and Tory.**—About this time the names Whig and Tory came into use. The party that wished to keep the Duke of York from the throne, and who were in favour of the Protestants, were called Whigs; while those who took the side of James, and were friendly to the Roman Catholics, were called Tories. Whig is a Scottish word meaning "whey" or sour milk, and was first given by the Cavaliers to the sober and grave-faced Presbyterians of Scotland. Tory, or Toree, meaning "Give me," was a name first applied to the robbers who infested the woods and bogs of Ireland. The word

Whig took the place of Roundhead, and Tory that of Cavalier.

8. **Charles a Despot.**—Charles's last Parliament was held at Oxford in 1681. It was dissolved within a week. After this Charles ruled as a despot till the end of his reign. All who dared to oppose the King's measures were punished—the rich by heavy fines, and the poor sometimes by torture.

9. **Rye House Plot: 1683.**—The last great event of the reign was the Rye House Plot, which was formed to prevent James from ever being King. The plotters proposed to murder Charles and give the crown to the Duke of Monmouth. The plan was to upset the royal coach at Rye House farm on its way back from Newmarket races, and to shoot the King. But the plot was discovered, and the plotters were put to death. The Rye House Plot had grown out of a plan made by Lord William Russell, Algernon Sidney, and others, to give the crown to Monmouth when Charles died; but they did not wish to do anything that would hasten the King's death. Yet the two plots were treated as one, and Russell and Sidney were put to death, while Monmouth fled to Holland.

10. **Death of Charles: 1685.**—One of the last acts of the King was to set aside the Test Act, in order to restore his brother, the Duke of York, to the post of Lord High Admiral, and to a seat in the Council. A few months later the King died after a short illness, having first declared himself a Roman Catholic. Wicked himself, he laughed at the idea of virtue or of honour in others.

**50. JAMES II.**

1685 to 1688: 3 years.

1. **James the Second.**—The Duke of York, brother of the late King, and son of Charles the First, now came to the throne as James the Second. He promised to govern according to the laws, and, though he was a Roman Catholic, to uphold the Church of England. He did not give up his own

religion, but openly attended the services of the Roman Catholic Church, which were performed at Westminster for the first time for a hundred and twenty-seven years.

2. **Monmouth's Rebellion: 1685.**—After the Rye House Plot in 1683, the Duke of Monmouth, the nephew of James, had fled to Holland. There he met the Earl of Argyle, who had escaped from Edinburgh Castle, where he had been imprisoned during the late reign for supporting the Presbyterian Church in Scotland. To dethrone James and put Monmouth on the throne, Monmouth and Argyle arranged to invade England and Scotland at the same time. Argyle was to head the rising in Scotland, while Monmouth was to land on the south coast of England. Argyle landed on Cantire, and called his clansmen to arms. His little army of 7,000 men was scattered, and Argyle fled. He was taken prisoner soon afterwards, and beheaded in Edinburgh. The Duke of Monmouth landed at Lyme in Dorsetshire. The common people flocked in hundreds to join him, but the nobles and gentlemen held back. At Taunton, Monmouth took the title of King. Intending to make himself master of Bristol, then the second city in England, he marched towards it; but losing heart, he fell back to Bridgewater.

3. **Battle of Sedgemoor: 1685.**—The royal army lay not far away at Sedgemoor, and Monmouth marched from Bridgewater in the dead of night to surprise it. As his soldiers were crossing the moor, a pistol went off and gave the alarm to the King's

army. Instantly the royal drums beat to arms, and a heavy fire was opened on the rebels. They were defeated with great loss, and Monmouth fled on horseback from the field.

4. **Death of Monmouth.**—He wandered about for two days in the dress of a countryman. Then, by means of bloodhounds, he was found in a ditch, half starved, with a few peas in his pocket. When taken before his uncle the King, he begged for life; but James, who knew no mercy, had him put to death on Tower Hill. Sedgemoor was the last battle fought on English ground.

5. **The Bloody Assize.**—Monmouth's followers were cruelly treated. Many of those taken prisoners in the battle were murdered in cold blood. Colonel Kirke hanged them by scores on the sign-post of an inn at Taunton. All who were thought to have favoured Monmouth in any way were put into prison, and a cruel and wicked judge, called Jeffreys, was sent down to try them. Jeffreys was as merciless as his master, and to please him he went from place to place hanging those who had taken part in the rebellion. The first person he sentenced to death was a lady who had helped two poor hunted men to escape, just as other women had helped King Charles when he was a wanderer. Judge Jeffreys boasted that he had hanged more persons than any other judge since the time of William the Conqueror. In one month he hanged 330 persons, and sold 800 more as slaves to the West Indies. When Jeffreys went back to London, he was rewarded by James, and made Lord Chancellor.

for the cruel work he had done in what is known as the "Bloody Assize." After the Revolution (1689), Jeffreys was caught when trying to escape dressed as a common sailor, and was so roughly handled that he died shortly afterwards in the Tower.

6. **Declaration of Indulgence:** 1687.—James now felt so safe on the throne that he began to unfold his plan for making England once more a Roman Catholic country. In order to favour his own religion, he set aside the laws which punished those who did not belong to the Church of England, and gave freedom of worship to all Dissenters and Roman Catholics. The King next appointed Roman Catholics to offices in the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. He then drew up a Declaration of Indulgence, in which he said that his subjects might attend any church they pleased, and that those appointed to any public office would not be asked any questions about their religion. In this way he made the Test Act of no effect.

7. **Trial of the seven Bishops.**—James ordered the Declaration of Indulgence to be read in all the churches. The London clergy refused to obey this order; and seven bishops, one of them Archbishop Sancroft, wrote a petition to the King against the Declaration, asking him not to force them to do an unlawful thing. James in anger sent them all to the Tower, where they remained for a week before they were brought to trial. The bishops were charged with making false statements in their petition in order to set the people against the Government. The jury declared them "not guilty," and

shouts of joy rang through the streets of London. When James heard this, his anger knew no bounds. He then made up his mind to make the people do as he wished by force of arms. For this purpose he sent to Ireland for soldiers, who, being Roman Catholics, would be more likely to take his side and carry out his wishes.

8. **The Revolution : 1688.**—The people of England were now roused against James. They felt that they could no longer trust their lives and liberties in his hands; and therefore the nobles and clergy sent a letter to William, Prince of Orange, asking him to come and take the crown from James. William was the son of Mary the sister of James the Second, and the husband of his daughter Mary; he was therefore both the nephew and the son-in-law of the King whose throne he was asked to take. He was also, after the family of James, the nearest heir to the throne.

9. William agreed to come. He landed at Torbay with 15,000 men, and all the people took his side. James was left without a friend. Even his younger daughter Anne and her husband, George Prince of Denmark, were on the side of William. James fled by night to Sheerness, where a vessel was waiting to take him to France. He was no sooner on board, however, than he was seized and taken back to London. In a second attempt he was allowed to escape, and reaching France, he received a warm welcome from the French King.

10. **Last Years of James.**—James spent the remaining twelve years of his life in the Palace of

St. Germain, near Paris, and there he died in 1701. By his first wife, Anne Hyde, he had two daughters —Mary the wife of the Prince of Orange, and Anne, both of whom sat on the throne. By his second wife, Mary of Modena, he left a son, James, afterwards called the Pretender. In history Prince James Edward Stewart, the son of James the Second, is called "The Old Pretender;" and his son, Prince Charles Edward Stewart, "The Young Pretender." James the Second was a reckless and self-willed King. Like his father and grandfather, he held firmly to the belief that he had received his crown from God, and that he could therefore rule his people as he pleased. This belief in "the divine right of kings" cost him his throne.

11. **The Throne vacant.** — After the flight of James, William, Prince of Orange, called a Convention,—that is, a Parliament brought together by one who is not as yet a sovereign. This Convention thanked William for his timely aid, and declared that James, by his bad government and flight from England, had lost all right to the crown.

12. **Declaration of Right: 1689.** — In order that the questions which had been in dispute between the Stewarts and the nation might be settled once for all, the Convention drew up the Declaration of Right, on which the Bill of Rights, signed the same year, was founded. It declared—

- (1.) That without the leave of Parliament the King could not levy taxes;
- (2.) That without the consent of Parliament no standing army could be kept up in time of peace;

- (3.) That the King had no right to interfere with the election of Members of Parliament;
- (4.) That any Member of Parliament was to be allowed to speak freely on any subject;
- (5.) That the King could not make or unmake any laws without the consent of Parliament; and,
- (6.) That William and Mary should be King and Queen of England, but that during the life of Mary William should alone rule the country. If Mary died without children, the crown was to go* to her sister Anne.

13. The great English Revolution was now finished. It was made clear that a king could not reign in England unless his rule was for the good of the people, and that he must obey the laws of the land as much as the poorest of his subjects. The struggle between the King and the people had been long and hard. It had cost one of the Stewarts his life, and another his crown; but it was fought to the end, and will never have to be fought again.

**51. WILLIAM III. AND MARY II.**

William, 1689 to 1702: 13 years.
Mary, 1689 to 1694: 5 years.

1. **William and Mary.**—William, Prince of Orange, was the son of Mary, the daughter of Charles the First, and William of Orange, the ruler of Holland and the Netherlands. He was therefore the grandson of Charles the First and the nephew and son-in-



MARY THE SECOND.

law of James the Second, whose throne he ascended as William the Third. Mary, his wife and cousin, was the daughter of James the Second and his first wife Anne Hyde, the daughter of Lord Clarendon.

2. Non-jurors.—About four hundred of the clergy of the Church of England, including the Archbishop

of Canterbury and four of the other six bishops who had joined in the petition to James for which they had been sent to the Tower, refused to take the oath of allegiance to William and Mary. They were called Non-jurors, and were obliged to resign their positions.

3. **Toleration Act: 1689.**—The Convention was now declared to be a proper Parliament, and one of the first things it did was to pass a Toleration Act, to allow Dissenters to have churches in which they might worship God in their own way. This liberty was not given to Roman Catholics, for they were not regarded as favourable to the new King.

4. **Bill of Rights: 1689.**—The Declaration of Right, with some slight changes, became the Bill of Rights, and as such received the signature of the King and became law. These three—Magna Carta, the Habeas Corpus Act, and the Bill of Rights—sum up the written safeguards of the nation, and constitute, as Lord Chatham said, “the Bible of English liberty.”

5. **Rebellion in Scotland.**—The followers of James, or the Jacobite party, as they were called (from Jacobus, the Latin name for James), were not put down in Scotland without a struggle. Edinburgh Castle still held out for James. Graham of Claverhouse—now Viscount Dundee—raised a Highland army to fight for the fallen House. In June, Edinburgh Castle yielded to the Government; and then Dundee and his Highlanders became the only hope of the Jacobite party. The royal army, under General Mackay, marched against him, and a battle

took place at the head of the Pass of Killiecrankie. The Lowlanders were utterly routed ; but the death of Dundee made the victory of no use to James. The Highland army quickly melted away. Religious freedom was again restored ; and in 1690, for the first time for thirty years, the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church met in peace.

6. **Rebellion in Ireland : 1689.**—With the help of the French King, James landed in Ireland with a small force. The Irish, being Roman Catholics, were in his favour. They looked upon him as a sufferer for their religion. When he entered Dublin thousands flocked to his standard, and he was soon at the head of a large army. The Protestants of the north stood by William, and thus got the name of Orangemen, which they have ever since retained.

7. **Siege of Londonderry : 1689.**—The town of Londonderry, in the north of Ireland, the stronghold of the Ulster Protestants, was besieged by James's army for three months and ten days—a clergyman, the Rev. George Walker, heading the defence. The sufferings of the people were very great, as no ships could reach them with food. At length a boom placed across the river Foyle was forced by two English ships, and the town was relieved. Three days later, the besieging army withdrew.

8. **Battle of the Boyne : 1690.**—In the following year, William himself took the field in Ireland, and defeated his rival in the famous Battle of the Boyne. Thereafter James fled again to France, leaving his generals to carry on the war as best they could ; but William soon overcame them. James's army

made its last stand at Limerick, which yielded to William in 1691. The Treaty of Limerick put an end to the rebellion.

9. **Massacre of Glencoe:** 1692.—Many of the Highland clans had not yet submitted to William. Some of the chiefs were keeping on good terms with the King “across the water,” as James was called. In August 1691 an order was issued that before the end of the year all the chiefs should take an oath owning William as King. All obeyed but Macdonald of Glencoe, who, delayed by stormy weather, was a day or two behind the time. The sheriff allowed him to take the oath; but the enemies of the Macdonalds told William that the chief had not obeyed the order and taken the oath before the end of the year. William signed an order for the destruction of the clan.

10. Soldiers were marched into Glencoe. They pretended that they came as friends, and lived for fifteen days among the Macdonalds, by whom they were well treated. Suddenly, on a dark winter morning when a snowstorm was raging among the hills, the soldiers turned on the doomed Macdonalds and shot them down in their houses. Thirty-eight persons were slain, and others fled half-naked to the hills and died in the snow. Their houses were burned down; their goods and cattle were carried off; and all that remained was a horrid waste, “black with fire and red with blood.” This great crime was laid chiefly at the door of Stair, the Secretary of State for Scotland, who designed the whole piece of treachery. At the same time, William was

much to blame, as he consented to the deed without thorough examination of the case, and afterwards failed to punish those who had been concerned in the massacre.

11. **England and France.**—William wished to humble the power of Louis the Fourteenth of France, who was trying to replace James the Second on the throne of England. While William was away in Ireland, the French King sent a fleet to invade England. It defeated the English ships, and landed some troops on English ground. As soon as the people knew that a foreign foe had set foot in England, the whole country was up in arms. Beacon-fires blazed on every hill-top, and the lords, gentry, and common people poured down every road which led to the sea, eager to beat back the invader. The French did not stay to fight, but returned to their ships, having done very little damage. This invasion turned the hearts of the people more towards William and Mary and away from James, since he had employed Frenchmen to fight against his own people. Even the Jacobites did not wish England to be defeated by a foreign army.

12. **Battle of La Hogue: 1692.**—A year or two afterwards the French prepared to invade England again. James hoped that the English admiral, Russell, who, along with a great many of his sailors, were Jacobites, would not oppose the invasion. Russell did wish to have James back again on the throne, but he would not allow his country to be beaten by the French. He said out boldly, "Do

not think that I will let the French triumph over us in our seas. Understand this, that if I meet them I fight them ; ay, though King James himself should be on board."

13. The admiral kept his word. William was in Holland at the time ; but Mary wrote to the fleet saying that she had heard they were not in favour of William and herself, but that she would trust them. The men were now, like their leader, determined to fight the French. In the Battle of La Hogue, which took place a few days later, Captain Carter, one of the first English commanders who was wounded, said with his last breath, " Fight the ship as long as she can swim." This was the feeling of the whole fleet ; and the English, aided by the Dutch, gained a complete victory. The Treaty of Ryswick in 1697, in which Louis acknowledged William as King of the United Kingdom, brought the war to a close.

14. National Debt.—These wars burdened the nation with a debt which it has never since been able to pay. It is called the National Debt. It began with a loan of £1,000,000 in 1693, and at the date of the Treaty of Ryswick it had increased to £20,000,000. The Parliament gave William plenty of money for his wars with Louis, on the understanding that he should give up to the Commons the chief share in ruling the country. The power thus obtained by the lower House has never since been lost. One of the plans formed to meet the cost of these wars led to the establishment of the Bank of England. A body of merchants

agreed to lend the Government £1,200,000 at 8 per cent., in return for certain trading rights. The charter was granted, 27th July 1694. The building erected by that company stands in the heart of London. In one of its courts is a statue of the King, set up in 1734, bearing this inscription : "To the memory of the best of Princes, William of Orange, founder of the Bank of England."

15. **Triennial Act : 1694.**—In the same year was passed the Bill for Triennial or three-year Parliaments. The Long Parliament had passed a similar Act, which was repealed in 1664, and Charles the Second had kept a Parliament sitting for seventeen years without a dissolution. It was to prevent the King from keeping a House of Commons in power that pleased himself, but was not in accordance with the will of the people, that this Act was now passed, which brought the House of Commons more under the power of the nation and less under that of the Crown.

16. **Darien Scheme.**—During the greater part of William's reign the Scots complained bitterly of the way in which the English Parliament hampered Scottish trade. As one means of pleasing Scotland, the Parliament offered to help any of the people to emigrate. William Paterson, the projector of the Bank of England, formed a plan for settling a colony of Scotsmen in Panama, or Darien, the isthmus which connects North and South America. Three ships sailed from the port of Leith, carrying twelve hundred men, full of hope and resolution. Soon after their arrival, however, they began to

suffer from the unhealthiness of the climate. But worst of all, the English and the Dutch trading companies, being jealous of the colony, managed to turn the Government against the scheme, and the English colonies in the West Indies received orders not to give any help to the Scottish colony of Darien. This was its death-blow, and the whole scheme was abandoned. It cost Scotland £400,000 and some of its best blood.

17. **Death of Mary:** 1694.—Queen Mary died of small-pox. After that William ruled alone. So great was the King's grief, that for two months after her death he did not do any business. William said to a friend, "She had no fault—none ; you knew her well. But you could not know—nobody but myself could know—her goodness." Mary had been a favourite with the people of England ; and they now looked on William as a greater stranger than ever, and showed so little love for him that he thought of giving up the crown of England and going back to Holland.

18. **Act of Settlement:** 1701.—As Mary left no children, it became necessary to provide for the succession to the throne. This was done by the Act of Settlement, which ordained that none but Protestants should in future sit on the throne of England ; and that in case neither William, nor Anne, who should succeed, had children, the Princess Sophia of Hanover, the grand-daughter of James the First, should be heir to the throne.

19. **Grand Alliance:** 1701.—When Charles the Fifth of Spain died he left his throne to Philip of Anjou,

the grandson of the King of France. The Duke now became King of Spain with the title of Philip the Fifth. This event seemed to bring very near that union of the crowns of France and Spain to which England and other great Powers were opposed. William was also very angry with the French King, because, on the death of James the Second, he had acknowledged his son the Pretender as James the Third of Great Britain. The Emperor of Austria had claimed the crown of Spain for his son the Archduke Charles; and William now resolved to support him. In September he made with Germany and Holland a treaty known as the Grand Alliance, and prepared for a great war with Louis. This was called the War of the Spanish Succession.

20. Death of William : 1702.—When his hopes were at the highest and everything was going on as he wished, he was suddenly cut off. He fell from his horse, which stumbled over a molehill in the park of Hampton Court, broke his collar-bone, and died in a fortnight. Long afterwards the Jacobites used to drink a toast, “To the little gentleman in black velvet” who did such good service in 1702. William was an able ruler, but he was not a favourite with the English people. This was due partly to his being a foreigner, and partly to his severe and silent manner. He left no children.

52 ANNE

1702-1714: 12 years.

1. **Queen Anne**: 1702.—Anne was the last Stewart who sat on the British throne. She was the second daughter of James the Second, and the sister of Mary, the late Queen. Her husband was Prince George of Denmark. He sat in the House of Lords as Duke of Cumberland; but he took no part in the government of the country. There was, however, a power behind the throne which was wielded in turn by two of the Queen's favourites. Anne first came under the influence of Sarah Jennings, Duchess of Marlborough, who held the office of Mistress of the Robes. For years the Queen and the Duchess were on such familiar terms that they carried on an almost daily correspondence under the names of "Mrs. Morley" (the Queen) and "Mrs. Freeman" (the Duchess). At length this lady obtained such a sway over her royal companion that she decided everything, from questions of State to the colour of a ribbon, and it became a common saying that "Queen Anne reigns, but Queen Sarah governs."

2. **War of the Spanish Succession**. (See Grand Alliance, page 323).—Within two months of the death of William, the war for which he had made ready was begun in Italy, on the Rhine, and in Belgium. The English general, John Churchill, afterwards Duke of Marlborough, was the husband of the Queen's favourite. He was aided by the Emperor of Germany's troops under Prince Eugene. Marlborough gained a great victory over the French

at Blenheim, a village in Bavaria, in 1704, and Marshal Tallard, the French general, was taken



ANNE.

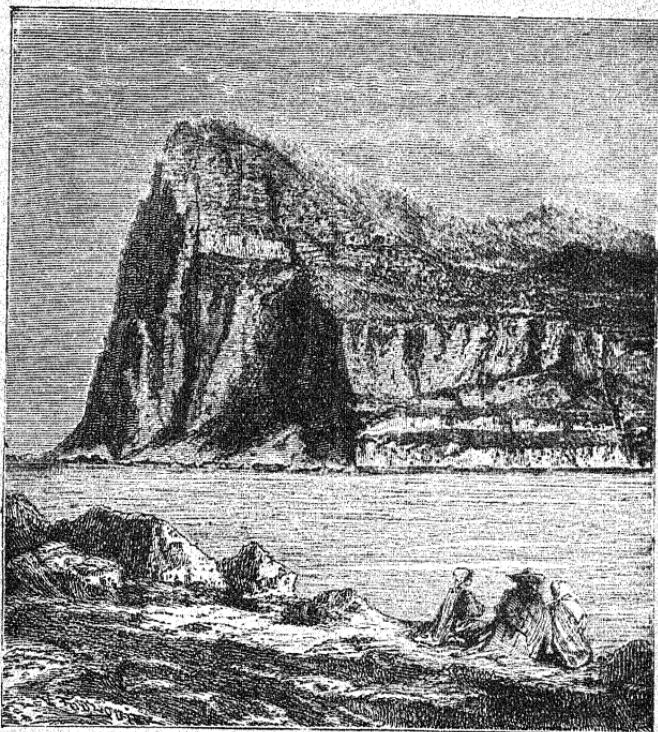
prisoner. The people of England presented the victor with the estate of Woodstock, and built for him a splendid mansion, which was named Blenheim House, after his great victory.



DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH.

3. In 1706, Marlborough defeated the French at Ramilie, near Brussels; and again in 1708 he gained a great victory over Marshal Vendôme at Oudenarde, near Ghent, where the French lost 15,000 men. The last great battle in the war was fought at Malplaquet, in France, in 1709, when the French, who were much disheartened, having lost nearly all that they were fighting for, were once more defeated. They lost, however, only 12,000 men, while the victors had twice that number slain.

4. Taking of Gibraltar : 1704.—During the time that Marlborough was winning his victories, the war had also been going on in Spain. At first the allies were successful. The most important event was the taking of Gibraltar by the English, under

GIBRALTAR.—(*Map, page 329.*)

Sir George Rooke, aided by some German troops. This great fortress, in the south of Spain, called "the key of the Mediterranean," has belonged to Great Britain ever since. The tide in the end turned against the allies; and the great Battle of Almanza, which was gained by the Duke of Berwick, a natural son of James the Second, secured the Spanish throne to Philip. The same year General Stanhope took Minorca, one of the Balearic Isles.

5. Union of English and Scottish Parliaments : 1707.

—At this time a matter of great importance arose at home—the need for a union between the Parliaments of England and Scotland. The Scottish Parliament, still angry at the result of the Darien Scheme, had passed an Act of Security (1704), providing that the successor to the throne of Scotland, on the death of Queen Anne, should not be the person chosen by the English Parliament, unless trade between England and Scotland was put on an equal footing. The English Parliament then declared that, after a fixed date, all Scotsmen were to be regarded as foreigners.

6. It seemed as if the two countries would soon be at war. To prevent this the English Government proposed a union of the two Parliaments. In 1706 thirty-one men on each side were appointed to draw up a Treaty of Union. It was agreed that—

(1.) On the first of May 1707, and for ever after, the kingdoms of England and Scotland should be united into one kingdom under the name of Great Britain.

(2.) The crown of the United Kingdom should remain to the Princess Sophia and her heirs, being Protestants.

(3.) Both nations should have full freedom of trade.

(4.) Scotland should retain her own Church, her own laws, and her own law courts.

(5.) The United Kingdom should be governed by one Parliament.

(6.) Sixteen peers and forty-five members of the House of Commons should represent Scotland in Parliament.

7. **Whigs and Tories.**—As we have already seen, there were two parties in the State—the Whigs and the Tories. Up to this time the chief ministers or advisers of the Queen had been chosen from either or both parties. Now the differences between them had become so marked that each party aimed at having the government of the country entirely in its own hands, and all the ministers at the same time in power chosen from itself.

8. Lord Godolphin had been Prime Minister since the beginning of this reign. Some of the ministers were Whigs, and some were Tories. Godolphin was in favour of the war with France; and as it was opposed by the Tories, but supported by the Whigs, he and the Duke of Marlborough came round to the latter party. In 1708 two of the ministers, who were Tories—Robert Harley and Henry St. John—had to resign, and Robert Walpole became a minister. The next year Godolphin thought he would please the people by trying a Tory clergyman, named Sacheverell, for preaching a sermon against the Revolution of 1688, and in favour of the “divine right” of kings. Sacheverell was found guilty; but the trial showed the feeling of the country to be with the Tories, and before the end of 1710 Godolphin had to resign, and the Tories came into power, with Harley and St. John at their head.

9. **Marlborough's Disgrace.**—While Marlborough was away on the Continent, in the spring of 1711,

the ministers wished to make peace with the French. Marlborough returned in October to find himself ruined. He was accused of taking bribes from a Jew who supplied the army with bread, and was dismissed from all his offices. The Duchess of Marlborough had been supplanted in the Queen's affections by Mrs. Abigail Hill, a cousin both of Harley and the Duchess, who soon got as complete control over Anne as the former favourite had possessed. Walpole was also charged with dishonest practices, expelled from the House of Commons, and sent to the Tower. Harley was made Earl of Oxford.

10. **Treaty of Utrecht : 1713.**—The war did not altogether stop till 1713. In that year it was brought to an end by the Treaty of Utrecht. By this treaty Britain gained Hudson Bay Territory, Newfoundland, and Nova Scotia, and was allowed to retain Gibraltar and Minorca, taken from Spain. Louis also agreed to send the Pretender out of France ; while Britain recognized Philip as King of Spain. The French and Spanish crowns, however, were not to be united.

11. **Death of Queen Anne : 1714.**—The people of this country were not pleased with the treaty. They thought that it gave Britain a poor return for the great victories won by Marlborough ; and some of the Tories were getting ready for a Jacobite rising, when Anne died suddenly in 1714. Anne was not a great Queen, but she was a good one. She was often called "The Good Queen Anne." She wished to do what was best for her people, and was willing to be guided by Parliament as to the way in which

this end could best be reached. She had a number of children, all of whom died in childhood.

12. Literature.—In literature the reign of Queen Anne takes rank next to that of Elizabeth. The first daily newspaper appeared in England—the *Daily Courant*—a dingy, badly-printed little sheet not much bigger than a man's hand. It had to compete with swarms of abusive political pamphlets, such as Swift wrote for the Tories and Defoe for the Whigs. A few years later a new journal appeared called the *Spectator*, which Addison, its chief contributor, soon made famous. Each number consisted of an essay intended to show the follies and the weaknesses of the age in their true light. These two sheets were the humble beginning of the daily press, which to-day places before its readers an account of everything of note or interest that is said or done throughout the world.



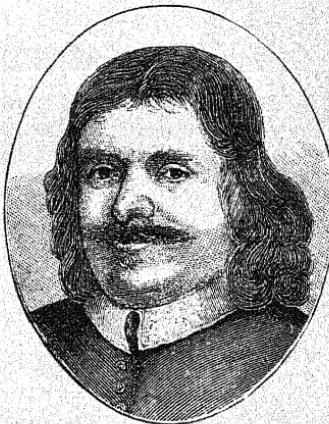
BEN JONSON
1574-1637
POET (Laureate)
He wrote *Every Man in his Humour*,
Catiline, etc.



JOHN MILTON
1608-1674
POET
He wrote *Paradise Lost*, *Paradise Regained*, etc.



JOHN DRYDEN
1631-1700
POET (Laureate)
He wrote *Alexander's Feast*, and translated
Virgil, etc.



JOHN BUNYAN
1628-1688
PREACHER
He wrote *The Pilgrim's Progress*,
The Holy War, etc.

G R E A T A U T H O R S



JOSEPH ADDISON

1672-1719

ESSAYIST

He wrote Papers in the Spectator, *Sir Roger de Coverley*, *Vision of Mirza*, etc.



DANIEL DEFOE

1660-1731

NOVELIST

He wrote *Robinson Crusoe*, *Journal of the Plague*, etc.



ALEXANDER POPE

1688-1744

POET

He wrote *The Dunciad*, *An Essay on Man*, translated Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, etc.



JONATHAN SWIFT

1667-1745

DEAN OF ST. PATRICK'S, DUBLIN

He wrote *Gulliver's Travels*, *The Tale of a Tub*, etc.

G R E A T A U T H O R S

HOUSE OF HANOVER.

(EIGHT SOVEREIGNS.)

| | |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. GEORGE I., great-grandson of James I. | 1714-1727: 13 years |
| 2. GEORGE II., son..... | 1727-1760: 33 years. |
| 3. GEORGE III., grandson..... | 1760-1820: 60 years. |
| 4. GEORGE IV., son..... | 1820-1830: 10 years. |
| 5. WILLIAM IV., brother..... | 1830-1837: 7 years. |
| 6. VICTORIA, niece..... | 1837-1901: 64 years. |
| 7. EDWARD VII., son..... | 1901-1910: 9 years. |
| 8. GEORGE V., son..... | 1910..... |

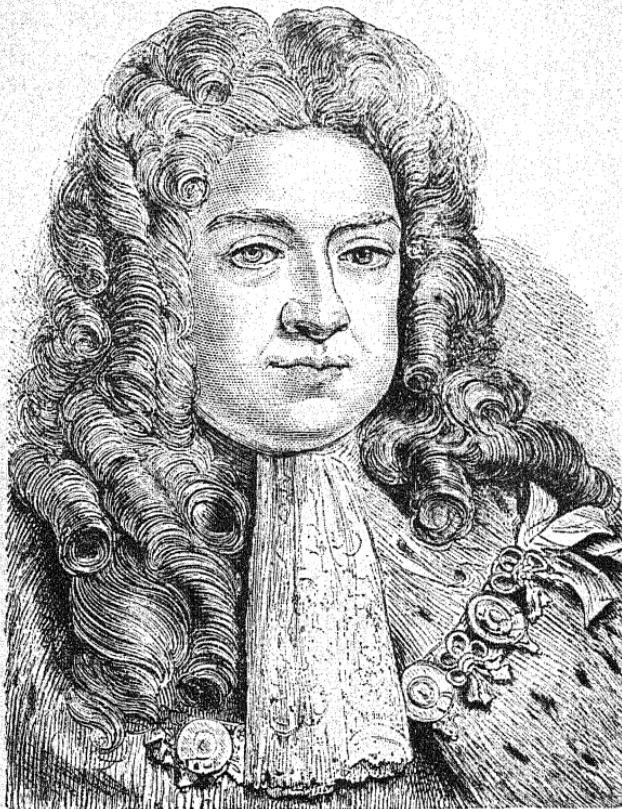
53. GEORGE I.

1714-1727: 13 years.

1. **House of Hanover.**—Queen Anne was the last Stewart who sat on the British throne. All her children had died before her; and the Bill of Rights, passed in 1689, had shut out her half-brother, James the Pretender, the son of James the Second, from the crown. The Act of Settlement, passed in 1701, had decided that Queen Anne should be succeeded by the Electress Sophia of Hanover, the grand-daughter of James the First, and her children. The Bill of Rights took the British crown from the Stewart race, and the Act of Settlement gave it to the House of Hanover.

2. **George the First.**—George the First, son of the Electress Sophia, was the first King of the House of Hanover. He was Elector of Hanover ("elector" was the name given to each of seven German princes who had votes in the election of the Emperor of Germany), and became King of the United Kingdom also, at the age of fifty-four. He could not speak English, and had to leave the

government for the most part in the hands of his ministers. This gave Parliament more power than



GEORGE THE FIRST.

it had ever had before, and helped to make the King's power less ever afterwards.

3. The Jacobites.—The ministers at Queen Anne's death were Tories, some of whom did not want George to be King. They had begun to plan in

favour of the Pretender, when Anne's death took place suddenly and found them unprepared. George turned them out of office at once, and placed his friends the Whigs in power. The Earl of Oxford was imprisoned for two years in the Tower. Lord Bolingbroke (Henry St. John) and other Jacobite leaders fled to France. For fear of a rising among the friends of the Pretender in various parts of the country, the army and the navy were made ready for war.

4. **Riot Act: 1715.**—This fear of a Jacobite rising resulted in the passing of the Riot Act, which is in force to this day. This act says that if twelve or more persons shall remain together for one hour after they have been ordered to break up by a magistrate, they shall be held guilty of crime. After giving such notice, the magistrate has power to use force to make the people obey him. He may then order soldiers to shoot those who refuse, or he may seize and imprison them.

5. **The Fifteen (1715).**—There was good ground to fear a rising in favour of the Pretender. He was in France preparing to invade this country, and there were many here who were ready to fight for him when he came. The death of Louis the Fourteenth of France, from whom the Jacobites had hoped to get help, did much to discourage them. In Scotland the Earl of Mar had gathered 10,000 Highlanders around him at Braemar. At their head he marched southward. The Duke of Argyle, with the King's army, met the Highlanders at Sheriffmuir. Neither side won a victory, but the battle was sufficient to prevent the Jacobites from

going further south. They retreated to Perth as quickly as they could.

6. The Jacobites of the north of England had been called out at the same time by the Earl of Derwentwater and Mr. Forster, the Member of Parliament for Northumberland. Only a few answered to the call. They were joined by some Scottish lords, among whom were Lord Kenmure and Lord Nithsdale, and by 1,800 Highlanders sent by the Earl of Mar. On the same day that the Battle of Sheriffmuir was fought in Scotland, the rebels on the other side of the Border were forced into Preston in Lancashire, where, after a time, they gave themselves up to the King's troops.

7. About a month after the Battle of Sheriffmuir the Pretender landed at Peterhead; but he came without the much-needed help from France expected by his followers. Even then he did not act wisely. He wasted his time preparing to be crowned at Perth, when he ought to have been fighting, for he had not won the crown. Hearing that Argyle was advancing, the Pretender retreated northward to Montrose. There he and Mar took ship for France, leaving their followers to take care of themselves. The leaders of the party were taken prisoners. Some of them, among whom were the Earl of Derwentwater and Lord Kenmure, were put to death; others lost their estates; and more than a thousand were banished to America.

8. **Septennial Act: 1716.**—The putting down of the Jacobite rising made the Whig party stronger than ever. The Parliament sitting at this time

would be three years old in 1718, and by a law (the Triennial Act) passed in 1694 there must be a new Parliament elected at least every three years. The ministers, however, did not think it would be wise to have an election while the country was in such an excited state. They therefore passed the Septennial Act, which allowed a Parliament to continue not more than seven years instead of three. This act, intended only to be a temporary measure, is still in force, though few Parliaments last longer than five or six years.

9. **Quadruple Alliance:** 1718.—When George became King of Great Britain, he did not cease to be Elector of Hanover. This led him to take part in what was happening on the Continent, and so Great Britain joined with Germany, France, and Holland against Philip, King of Spain, in what was called the Quadruple Alliance. The allies were too strong for Philip. He, however, was able to send a fleet to Scotland to help the Pretender. The ships, all but two, were wrecked by a storm, and Philip was forced to seek peace shortly afterwards in 1720.

10. **South Sea Bubble:** 1720.—It will be remembered that the wars of William the Third had burdened the country with a heavy National Debt, which had never been paid. This debt had now grown to the large sum of £53,000,000, for which the Government had to pay as interest more than £3,000,000 every year. This was nearly half of the whole income of the country, and it became a heavy burden. Many plans were formed to make the

burden lighter, but the one best known was called the South Sea Scheme.

11. The South Sea Company was formed in 1710, for the purpose of carrying on trade in the South Seas. To have the sole right of trading in that part of the world, the Company agreed to give the Government a large sum of money at once, and £800,000 every year to help to pay the interest on the National Debt. In order to persuade the people to buy shares in the scheme—that is, to lend the Company money to work with—the managers spread abroad stories of the great wealth to be found in the golden islands of the South Seas. Hundreds ran to buy shares, and money flowed fast into the hands of the Company. The people went mad about it, and some even paid £1,000 for a share that had at first cost only £100.

12. The success of the South Sea Company seemed to be so great that many other companies were formed. Everybody wanted to make money in some easier and quicker way than by working for it. The money was spent and little trade was done, and at last the bubble burst. Those who held shares were as eager to sell as before they had been to buy. No one would have the shares at any price. The Company was broken up, and hundreds of persons were ruined.

13. Sir Robert Walpole.—Sir Robert Walpole, who had left the ministry three years before, had never believed in the South Sea Scheme; and as he was well skilled in money matters, he now came forward to help the country. He divided the loss between

the Bank of England, the East India Company, and the Government. Some of the ministers had to give up their places for having taken money from the founders of the Company. Those who had taken a leading part in it had to sell all they had to repay the shareholders.

14. Walpole was the first adviser of the sovereign who was called Prime Minister. There had always been one of the monarch's advisers or ministers who had held the chief place. In Norman and early Plantagenet times it was the Justiciar; then this post was held by the Chancellor, Clarendon being the last great Chancellor. The Treasury was now under the management of a board or committee, the members of which were called Lords of the Treasury, and the chairman was called the First Lord. As the ministers were now chosen from one political party, they acted together much more than they had formerly done, and this gave them the name of the Ministry, and their leader was known as the Premier, or Prime Minister.

15. The Ministry, the Government, or the Cabinet, as it is called, now generally consists of from twelve to fifteen persons chosen by the Prime Minister from the leading members of his party in both Houses of Parliament. When Parliament meets after an election, the leader of the party that is in a majority in the House of Commons takes the office of Premier, and selects the ministry from the majority. If, therefore, the people have elected more Conservative members than Liberal members, the Cabinet or Government will be Conservative. If more Liberal members

be elected, the Cabinet will be Liberal. In this way the people, when they are electing members of Parliament, are really deciding who shall govern them.

16. Walpole was Premier for twenty years. By freely giving money and titles of honour he won over to his side many of those who might have given him trouble. He used to say, "Every man has his price." He meant that the vote of every man could be bought, if only its price could be found out. He always tried to keep the country out of war, and did all that he could to improve trade and manufactures. In 1722 he had to deal with a small Jacobite plot, set on foot by Francis Atterbury, Bishop of Rochester. Atterbury was banished for life, and spent the rest of his days in France.

17. **Death of George.**—While the King was travelling in Hanover, he was taken ill, and died the next day, at the age of sixty-seven. George and his wife, Sophia of Zell, had not been good friends. He used her very harshly, and kept her for thirty-three years shut up in a castle in Hanover. Even her own children were not allowed to see her. She died there only a few months before him. They had one son, George II., who succeeded his father.

18. **Literature.**—During this reign Daniel Defoe wrote his famous story *Robinson Crusoe*, in which he describes Crusoe's life and adventures on a desert island; Dean Swift wrote a satire on English society in the form of a story, which he called *Gulliver's Travels*; Watts composed his *Divine and Moral Songs*; and Thomson published part of his poem called *The Seasons*.

54. GEORGE II. (Part 1.)

1727 to 1760: 33 years.

1. George the Second.—George the Second, the son of George the First, was forty-four years of age when he became King. Unlike his father, he could speak the English language. His wife, Caroline of Anspach, in Bavaria, was a good and clever woman. She had great influence over him, and by her advice he was able to govern well. Sir Robert Walpole was at first set aside by the King; but Caroline, who was Walpole's friend, obtained his restoration, and he continued to be the chief minister of the Crown during the first fifteen years of this reign.

2. Excise Bill: 1733.—At this time there was a good deal of smuggling carried on. Goods on which a tax should have been paid were brought secretly into the country. Walpole made up his mind to stop this. He therefore proposed to bring wine and tobacco under the law of Excise—that is, no one was to be allowed to deal in them without a license. The merchants cried out that if this Excise Bill became law their business would be ruined. When Walpole saw how many were against the Bill, he withdrew it rather than lose his power.

3. Porteous Riot: 1736.—All Scotland was disturbed by the Porteous Riot, which took place in connection with smuggling. Wilson and Robertson, two smugglers who had been condemned to death, were confined in the Tolbooth Prison, Edinburgh. On the Sunday before they were to be hanged, Wilson bravely helped Robertson to escape. The

mob of Edinburgh were so delighted with Wilson's act, that they pelted the hangman and the



GEORGE THE SECOND.

soldiers when the smuggler was brought out to be hanged. Captain Porteous, who was in command of the City Guard, told his men to fire on the crowd, and several were killed. Porteous was tried for

murder, and condemned to death ; but an order came from London to put off his execution. The people thought that the King meant to pardon him, and so one night they broke into the Tolbooth Prison, dragged Porteous out, and hanged him on a dyer's pole in the Grassmarket. When the King and his ministers knew what had been done, they were very angry. A Bill was brought into Parliament to break down the wall and take away the Charter of Edinburgh ; but the Scottish members spoke so strongly against it that the Bill was withdrawn, and the city was punished by a fine of £2,000. The story of the Porteous riot is told in Sir Walter Scott's novel, *The Heart of Midlothian*.

4. **Death of Queen Caroline : 1737.**—By the death of the Queen, Walpole lost a warm friend and supporter. After this his work was not so easy nor his power so great. Neither the King nor the Prince of Wales liked him ; and those who were against him in Parliament found an able leader in William Pitt, afterwards Earl of Chatham.

5. **War with Spain : 1739.**—Peace was unbroken for twelve years after George the Second became King. Then war broke out with Spain. The Spaniards had large colonies in South America, and they would only allow British ships to trade with them under conditions which made trade difficult. One thing the British would not agree to—that was, to allow the Spanish the right to search all British vessels found near their colonies. In vain Walpole tried to arrange the difficulty without fighting. War was declared, to the great joy of the people. When

Walpole heard the London bells ringing because the war had begun, he said, "They may ring their bells now ; they will soon be wringing their hands."

6. Walpole was right, for the war was not a success. A great fleet and army, under Admiral Vernon and Lord Wentworth, failed to take Cartagena, in South America, chiefly because the leaders could not agree among themselves. Commodore (afterwards Lord) Anson was sent out with ships to help Vernon. He failed in his object, and did not return to England for three years. During this time, though he had lost all his ships but one, he had sailed round the world, and had captured a Spanish treasure-ship containing £300,000.

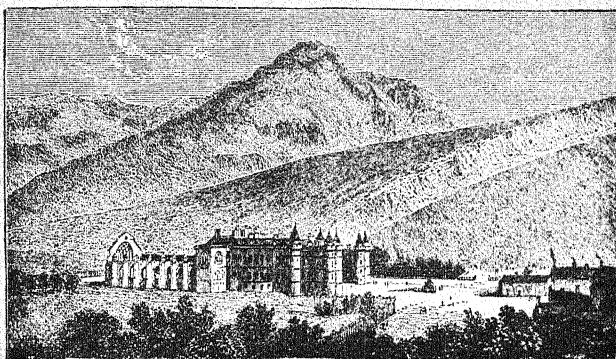
7. Retirement of Walpole : 1742.—Walpole had been Prime Minister for twenty years, but the end of his power was drawing near. He had been against the Spanish War from the first, yet he was blamed for its failure. When the new Parliament met in 1741, he found that he had not a sufficient majority to carry on the government, and therefore he resigned his place as Premier. The King made him Earl of Orford in 1742. He died in 1745.

8. War of the Austrian Succession : 1741–48.—Before the war with Spain had come to an end, the War of the Austrian Succession had begun. Charles the Sixth of Austria had died in 1740, and left a will making his daughter, Maria Theresa, Queen of the countries over which he had ruled. The Elector of Bavaria wanted to take Hungary from her, the King of Prussia took Silesia, and the King of France said she had no right to rule at all. The British

were alarmed for Hanover, not knowing what this might lead to. The King himself crossed to the Continent with an army, and put the French to flight in a battle near Dettingen, on the river Main (1743). This was the last time that a British King was under the fire of an enemy. Two years later his second son, the Duke of Cumberland, was beaten by Marshal Saxe at Fontenoy, in Belgium. Maria Theresa was, in the end, fully able to hold her own.

9. **The Forty-five (1745).**—Charles Edward (“Bonnie Prince Charlie”), the Young Pretender, the son of James the Old Pretender, came to Scotland to make another attempt to win back the throne the Stewarts had lost. He landed with seven officers at Moidart on the Inverness coast; and many of the Highland chiefs, the most noted of whom was Cameron of Lochiel, gathered round him. At the head of seven hundred men he moved southward. At Perth he was proclaimed Regent for his father. The people of Edinburgh gave him a hearty welcome, and he took up his abode in Holyrood Palace. The Castle of Edinburgh, however, held out for King George.

10. Sir John Cope was in the north with the King’s army when Charles marched southward. He embarked his troops and took them by sea to Dunbar, where he landed them on the same day that Charles entered Edinburgh. Marching out of Edinburgh, the Prince met the royal troops at Prestonpans. The first rush of the Highlanders won the battle. They fired their pistols and dashed on with their claymores. The King’s army broke, and fled



HOLYROOD PALACE.

to Berwick, with Sir John at its head. Six weeks after this victory Charles set out for London with an army of five thousand men. This delay gave King George time to muster his forces. Charles crossed the Border, took Carlisle, and marched to Derby. The help he had expected to receive on the way never came. Almost hemmed in by thirty thousand men, Charles began the homeward march. On his way to the north he gained a swift victory over the royal troops at Falkirk in Stirlingshire; but he was still driven northwards, and had to seek shelter among the Grampians.

11. **Battle of Culloden : 1746.**—The Duke of Cumberland now took command of the royal army in Scotland. Charles fell back on Inverness; Cumberland followed. Charles made his last stand at Culloden. The Highlanders, sword in hand, rushed on the first line of the royal troops, and broke it—only to find a second and a third ready to withstand

their attack. In less than an hour they were completely beaten. One part of the army yielded at Inverness; the other scattered and disappeared in the glens from which the clansmen had come. Charles fled to the hills, and wandered about for five months. Although a reward of £30,000 was offered for his head, no one would give him up. The most famous of those who helped him to escape was Flora Macdonald: she dared every danger, and even risked her own life, to protect him. At last he escaped to France.

12. **Sufferings of the Highlanders.**—Those parts of the country from which the followers of Charles had come were overrun by the King's soldiers. Cumberland spared none on whom he could lay his hands. His cruelty earned for him the name of the "Butcher." The clans were broken up, forts were built, and the people were forbidden to wear the Highland dress. About eighty of the Jacobites were executed, among whom were Lord Kilmarnock, Lord Balmerino, and Lord Lovat. Flora Macdonald was kept in prison for a year. This was the last Jacobite rising. The Stewarts never again tried to regain their throne.

13. **Last of the Stewarts.**—James, the Old Pretender, died in 1766. Charles Edward spent his later days at Rome, under the title of Duke of Albany. The gallant young soldier, the "Bonnie Prince Charlie" of song and story, became a broken-down drunkard. He died in 1788. Nineteen years later died his brother Henry, Cardinal of York, the last male of the royal Stewart line.

14. **Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle: 1748.**—The War of

the Austrian Succession, which had begun in 1741, was brought to a close by the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. The husband of Maria Theresa was acknowledged as Emperor of Germany; and both sides in the quarrel were tired of war. By this treaty the Pretender and his family were banished from France, and the House of Hanover acknowledged as rightful sovereigns of the United Kingdom.

15. Change in the Calendar: 1752.—In this year a change was made in the calendar. Since the days of Julius Caesar each year had been reckoned eleven minutes too long, and this had caused the British date to be eleven days behind the right time. To make the reckoning right, eleven days were dropped in 1752—the 3rd of September being called the 14th. The people at first disliked the change, and called upon the Government to give them back their eleven days. The calendar was also arranged for the year to commence on the first day of January instead of the 25th March as hitherto. Pope Gregory had already adopted the new style—that is, had made this change in all Roman Catholic countries; but England, being Protestant, refused to do so at the same time. Russia is now the only country in Europe that still reckons by the old style.

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55. GEORGE II. (Part II.)

1. The Pelhams.—Sir Robert Walpole resigned the office of Prime Minister in 1742, and was succeeded by the Earl of Wilmington. On his death,

in 1743, two brothers—the Pelhams—Sir Henry Pelham and the Duke of Newcastle, became the leading ministers. Sir Henry, the younger brother, was Prime Minister. He was a very good man of business; and his brother, the Duke, knew how to keep people in good humour and get their votes. And so, by obliging everybody, the brothers managed to keep in power for nearly twenty years. When Sir Henry died, in 1754, his brother, the Duke, became Prime Minister.

2. **Pitt, the "Great Commoner."**—William Pitt, called the "Great Commoner," afterwards made Earl of Chatham, entered Parliament in 1735. He had gained some influence in Walpole's time, and now, under the Pelhams, he rose quickly to a high position. Two years after the death of Henry Pelham, the Seven Years' War began, and the British were attacked by the French on the Continent, in America, and in India. At first everything seemed to be going wrong. The people were in despair. They thought the country would be ruined; when Pitt came forward, after the loss of Minorca, and said, "I know that I can save the nation, and that no one else can." In 1757 he was made Foreign Secretary, and though Newcastle was Prime Minister, Pitt was really the head of the Government. Then followed those successes in North America and in India which made Pitt's name famous, and so greatly extended the British Empire.

3. **British abroad.**—Before we can follow the course of events during the Seven Years' War, we must first understand the great changes that had



WILLIAM Pitt, EARL OF CHATHAM.

taken place during the hundred and fifty years from 1600 to 1750. Our navy had greatly improved, and our ships were ploughing every sea. Our commerce had increased at a rapid rate, and many of our countrymen had gone forth to other lands to trade and to colonize. Our nearest neighbour at home was France. In spite of the "silver streak" that separated us from her, we had often quarrelled and fought on the continent of Europe. When we settled abroad, the French were our neighbours there also, for they did the same. In North America and in India, Britain and France quarrelled and fought, till in the end the French were defeated, and these two great countries were added to the British Empire.



NORTH AMERICA.

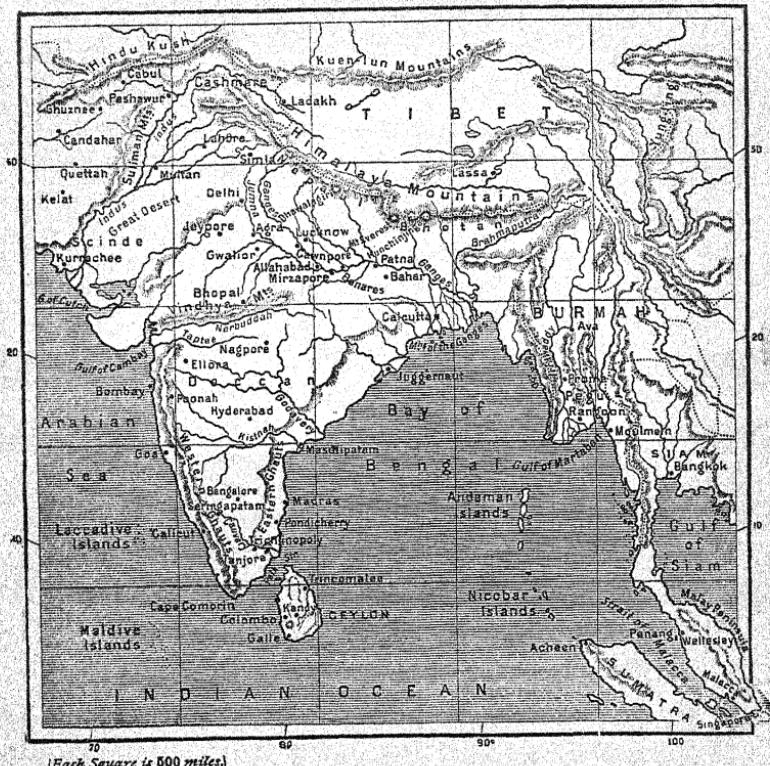
4. British Colonies in America.—In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, Sir Walter Ralegh had planted an English colony on the shores of North America. He called it Virginia, in honour of Elizabeth, the virgin Queen. During the following reigns, other colonies were planted all along the Atlantic coast of North America. Among these were the New En-

gland States, founded by the Pilgrim Fathers in the reign of James the First. These colonies had grown in number and in population, till now, in George the Second's reign, we find thirteen of them containing well-to-do people, managing their own affairs, but each ruled over by a Governor appointed by the King of Great Britain.

5. French Colonies in North America.—At this time the French also had obtained a footing in North America. Their colonies were found chiefly on the river St. Lawrence, and were then called Lower Canada, but now known as the Province of Quebec. The French wished to keep in their own hands all the trade with the Indians who dwelt between the British colonies and the great river Mississippi. To do this they built a chain of forts along the river Ohio and the Alleghany Mountains. This led to fighting between the British and the French colonists.

6. British in India.—About the same time—toward the end of Queen Elizabeth's reign—when some of our countrymen were sailing west to plant colonies in America, others were sailing east to trade with the people of India. In the year 1600 the English East India Company was formed for this purpose. This Company had been very successful, and in George the Second's reign it possessed three factories or trading centres—at Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta. Here forts had been built for the protection of the Company's warehouses, and were guarded by a few sepoys or paid native soldiers.

7. French in India.—The French, our neighbours
(859)



Each Square is 500 miles.

OUR INDIAN EMPIRE.

at home, and, as we have seen, our neighbours also in America, now made their appearance in India. In 1664 they started a French East India Company, and formed a trading settlement at Pondicherry, about one hundred miles south of Madras. The British and the French settlers were very jealous of each other. When at length war broke out between



LORD CLIVE.

Great Britain and France, the French Governor in India tried to drive out the British, and set up a great French empire in that country. For some time the French were successful. They destroyed the British factory at Madras, and carried off the merchants and clerks as prisoners. But at length all their plans were defeated. Robert (afterwards Lord) Clive, who had been a clerk in the English East India Company's service, was among the captives; but he escaped, and entered the army in 1746, where he soon became famous for his daring and bravery. In 1751, with a small force he seized Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, a division of Southern India extending along the east coast, and

there stood a famous siege from a French and native army, in which he came off victorious. To him we owe our empire in India.

8. Seven Years' War : 1756-1763.—Fighting had already taken place between the British and the French in America and in India, when a great conflict took place on the continent of Europe. In this conflict all the great Powers took a part. France, Austria, and Russia joined against Frederick the Great of Prussia, and Great Britain joined with Prussia for the defence of Hanover. Many battles were fought on the Continent which do not belong to British history. Our share of the conflict took place chiefly in India and America.

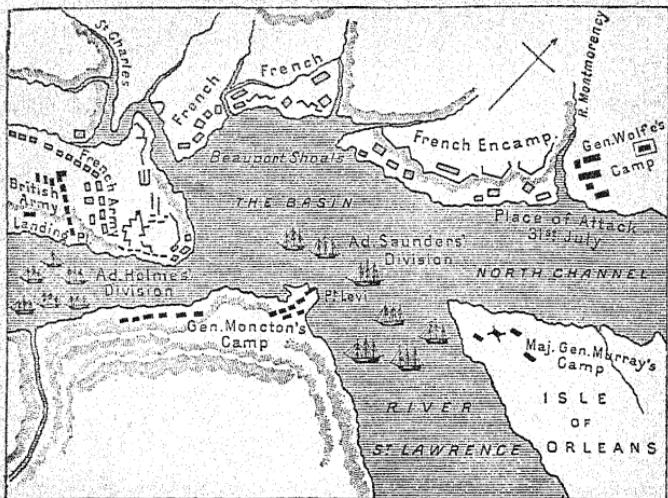
9. Capture of Minorca : 1756.—One of the first events in the war was an attack on Minorca, one of the Balearic Islands, in the Mediterranean, by the French. This island had been taken by the British from Spain in 1708. A British fleet under Admiral Byng was sent out to relieve it. Thinking that his force was not strong enough, the admiral sailed away to Gibraltar, and Minorca was taken by the French. The people of this country were so angry at this, that Byng was tried and condemned to death. He was shot on the deck of a man-of-war at Portsmouth, 1757.

10. Black Hole of Calcutta : 1756.—When the Seven Years' War began, Clive, who was in England, was sent out again. Just before he arrived, a cruel deed was done at Calcutta. A native prince—Sujah-ad-Dowlah, Nabob of Bengal—had taken Calcutta, and had ordered all the British prisoners to

be thrust into a small room that measured only eighteen feet long and fifteen feet wide. Into this chamber, afterwards known as "The Black Hole of Calcutta," one hundred and forty-six persons were packed, and kept locked up all night. Suffering all the agonies of heat, thirst, and suffocation, they endeavoured in vain to bribe the guards to transfer some of them to another room. In vain they begged for mercy, and tried to burst open the door. Their jailers only mocked them, and would do nothing. "Then the prisoners went mad with despair, trampled each other down, fought to get at the windows, and implored the guards to fire upon them." Next morning only twenty-three came out alive.

11. **Battle of Plassey**: 1757.—Clive hastened to punish this cruel deed. He forced his way to Calcutta, and held it against Sujah-ad-Dowlah, who attacked it with 40,000 men. On June 23rd he met the Nabob in battle at Plassey, ninety miles north of Calcutta. There, with less than 4,000 men, he defeated the Nabob's great army of 60,000. This victory gained for Britain the large and fertile province of Bengal, and made us masters of India.

12. **Capture of Quebec**: 1759.—Now let us turn to America. In that country matters went badly till Pitt took them in hand. He sent to Canada a very gallant young general named James Wolfe, who soon turned defeat into victory. Pitt himself planned the campaign, and ordered Wolfe to take Quebec, the French capital of Canada. This was a hard thing to do, as Quebec—a strong fortress built on high rocks, at the foot of which runs the



river St. Lawrence—was held by the French under General Montcalm. At first unsuccessful, Wolfe began to think that he should have to give up the attempt to take the city. At last he thought of a daring plan, which he set about carrying out at once.

13. Outside of Quebec, a table-land, called the Heights of Abraham, overlooks the city. At the foot of these heights there is a narrow landing-place, from which a zigzag path leads to the top. This point was left almost unguarded; for the French general never dreamed that an enemy could come upon him by that way. During the night Wolfe took his soldiers in boats down the river and landed them at the foot of the cliffs. Silently they climbed the zigzag path, and when morning broke they were all ready for battle on the plain



DEATH OF GENERAL WOLFE.

above. The French were taken completely by surprise, yet they advanced with great bravery.

14. The steadiness of the British won the day. The French broke and fled for safety to the town. Wolfe was killed in the moment of victory. When he felt that his wound was mortal, he said, "Hold me up; do not let my brave fellows see me fall!" As he rested in the arms of one of his officers, Wolfe heard him say, "See, they run!"—"Who run?" asked Wolfe.—"The enemy, sir; they give way everywhere."—"Now, God be praised; I die happy." These were the hero's last words. Quebec was given up four days afterwards. In the following year, Montreal and the whole of Canada passed into the hands of the British.

15. **Victories in Europe.**—The year 1759 was also famous for a victory over the French at Minden in Germany, and for the destruction of the French fleet by Admiral Hawke off the rocky shore of Brittany.

16. **Death of George:** 1760.—George the Second died suddenly, of heart disease, in the seventy-seventh year of his age. He was a good King, and his homely manners and kindly ways made him a favourite with his people. Frederick, Prince of Wales, had died from the stroke of a cricket ball some years before, leaving nine children, the eldest of whom came to the throne as George the Third.

17. **The Methodists.**—At the beginning of the reign the Nonconformists, as the chief religious bodies outside the Church of England were called, were the Independents, the Presbyterians, the Baptists, and the Society of Friends. The members of the Church were far more numerous than the Nonconformists; but the Church was not in a satisfactory condition. In 1730 a band of Oxford students, led by John Wesley, his brother Charles, and a famous preacher named George Whitefield, formed themselves into a society for the purpose of bringing about a revival in religion. From their regular meetings for worship, and because of their strict religious lives, they received the name of Methodists. At first Wesley had no intention of separating from the Church; but as the clergy would not recognize the movement, meetings were held in the open air and in barns till chapels were built, and at length the Methodists formed themselves into a separate communion.

**56. GEORGE III. (Part I.)**

1760 to 1820: 60 years.

1. **George the Third.**—George the Third was the grandson of George the Second. He was twenty-two years of age when he became King. The two Georges who had reigned before him had been born and brought up in Germany; but the young King

was an Englishman. In his first speech to Parliament he said, "I glory in the name of Briton."

2. **The Family Compact:** 1761.—Great Britain had now become the leading nation in the world; but France still struggled for the mastery, and the Seven Years' War continued. Pitt soon learned that the Kings of France, Spain, and Naples had joined together against Great Britain. They all belonged to the Bourbon family, or royal house of France, and the agreement was called the Family Compact. They were to aid one another against all their enemies, and most of all against Great Britain. Pitt wished to declare war at once against Spain; but George, by the advice of the Earl of Bute, who had been his tutor, and who could get the King to do almost anything he wished, refused this; on which Pitt gave up his office.

3. **War with Spain:** 1762.—Next year Bute became Prime Minister, and Spain took part in the war, as Pitt had said. Parliament gave large sums of money to carry it on. In the East and West Indies, one place after another belonging to France and Spain fell into our hands. At length both France and Spain asked for peace. Bute was willing to grant their request, because he was getting alarmed at the growth of the National Debt, which had already risen to £132,000,000.

4. **Peace of Paris:** 1763.—The treaty which put an end to the war was signed at Paris in 1763. It left Canada, which had been won by Wolfe in 1759, and other places in North America, in the hands of Britain; but Pondicherry, taken in 1761.

was restored to the French. The people, whose passions had been roused, were angry because peace had been made; and when Bute saw that the feeling of the country was against him, he resigned. His place was taken by George Grenville, who was not a successful minister.

5. **John Wilkes.**—John Wilkes, who was a member of Parliament and the editor of a newspaper called the *North Briton*, was sent to the Tower of London in 1763 for stating in his paper that the King had told a lie in a speech from the throne. The people took his side, and under the Habeas Corpus Act Wilkes was set free; but he was turned out of the House of Commons and outlawed. After being away in France for a time, he came back; and the people regarding his treatment as unlawful, elected him four times as member of Parliament for Middlesex; but the House of Commons would not let him take his seat. Determined to stand up for freedom of speech in Parliament, the people still took his part, and made him Lord Mayor of London in 1774. In the end, the House of Commons had to yield and allow Wilkes to take his seat. In 1770 the printers and publishers of the "Letters" of Junius were tried and acquitted. These letters appeared in the *Public Advertiser*, and contained violent attacks on the King and the Prime Minister.

6. **The Stamp Act : 1765.**—The Seven Years' War left North America in British hands. Now began a quarrel with our American colonies which caused most of them to separate from the mother country.

The Government at home claimed the right of taxing them without their permission. The late war had cost a great deal of money, and as much of it had been spent on behalf of the colonies, Grenville thought that they ought to help to pay it. A Stamp Act was passed, by means of which he hoped to raise what he wanted in America. This Act required that all legal documents, such as deeds, wills, notes, receipts, and the like, should be written on paper bearing high-priced Government stamps. The Americans answered, that they were willing to give money of their own free will, but that they would not be forced to pay taxes which they had no share in levying, as they sent no members to the British Parliament. Grenville resigned, and his successor, the Marquis of Rockingham, repealed the Stamp Act.

7. Taxes on Tea, etc.—The next Premier was the Duke of Grafton. Pitt, who was now Earl of Chatham, had warned the Government against the Stamp Act, and told them what would happen. He was strongly against taxing the colonists at all; but the ministers, who had not yet learned wisdom, placed new taxes on tea, lead, glass, and other things which were sent to America. This soon made matters much worse. Chatham left the Ministry; and two years after, the Duke of Grafton gave way to Lord North. It was not because the tax was large that the Americans were unwilling to pay it, for it was very small, but because they considered that the home Government had no right to tax them at all. The King was more to blame than any of his min-

isters. He would not give way in what he thought was his right as Sovereign of the colonies.

8. Taxed Tea in Boston Harbour: 1773.—In December 1773, when the ships filled with taxed tea were in Boston harbour, a number of men dressed like Indians went on board and threw the tea into the water. For this the port of Boston was closed by an order from home. The object of this was to ruin the Boston merchants by preventing the landing of goods there. Next year twelve men, chosen one from each of twelve States, to which a thirteenth was afterwards added, met in Congress at Philadelphia, and sent an address to the King, asking him to withdraw the taxes; but the King refused. Chatham said to the Lords that it was folly to force taxes in the face of a continent in arms. Burke bade the Commons take care lest they broke that tie of kindred blood which, light as air though strong as iron, bound the colonies to the mother-land.

9. American War.—It was now ten years since the passing and withdrawing of the Stamp Act. Everything had been tried to bring about a settlement, but the foolishness of the King made all efforts vain. War began and went on for nearly eight years. The King found that he could get Lord North to do much as he wished, and so he kept him in power during the whole American War.

10. First Campaign: 1775.—The first fighting took place at Lexington, near Boston, between a few British soldiers and some American riflemen. The colonists who were used to shooting deer in the

forests, soon proved their skill, and they now shot down men with deadly aim. The British lost more than twice as many men as the Americans. The Americans next besieged the British under General Gage in Boston, and a battle took place on Bunker Hill near the town, where the Americans had thrown up earthworks. They were forced to retreat, but they did not lose heart. They now



GEORGE WASHINGTON.

saw that they could hold their own when they met the best British troops on equal terms.

11. **George Washington.**—The famous George Washington now took command of the American army. He had done good service for the British in their struggle with the French in the Seven Years' War. Now he had but one thought, one desire, and that was to secure the freedom of his country. "First in war, first in peace, and first in the hearts of his

countrymen," was said of him. He was in favour of union with Great Britain till he saw that it was no longer possible.

12. Invasion of Canada: 1775.—The second great event of this campaign was the invasion of Canada by the American leaders Montgomery and Arnold. General Montgomery took Montreal, on the St. Lawrence, and Colonel Arnold joined him before Quebec, on the same river. They were beaten back from that fortress, and Montgomery was slain.



13. Second Campaign: 1776.—Early in this year Howe, the British leader, who had succeeded General Gage, was forced by the cannon of the Americans to leave Boston, which the British army had held, and sail to Halifax.

14. Declaration of Independence: 1776.—On the 4th of July the Congress of Americans met at Philadelphia, and drew up the "Declaration of Independ-

ence," in which they declared themselves a free nation, and that they would not submit to King George any longer. In August of the same year General Howe, reinforced by his brother, drove Washington from New York, and planted the British flag on its batteries.

15. **Third Campaign: 1777.**—For the third campaign help in men and money was sent by France to the Americans. A victory at the Brandywine river, and the capture of Philadelphia, raised hopes in Britain that the Americans would be forced to yield. A great disaster changed these hopes into fears. General Burgoyne, who was marching from Canada to join Howe at New York, was surrounded at Saratoga, on the Hudson river, and forced to surrender. This was the turning-point of the war in favour of the Americans.

16. **Fourth and Fifth Campaigns: 1778.**—Howe was now succeeded by Sir Henry Clinton, who abandoned the city of Philadelphia, in which the British army had passed the winter. It was during this year that Chatham, while speaking in spite of age and illness against a proposal to grant independence to the colonies, fell in a fit on the floor of the House of Lords, and was carried to bed, from which he never rose.—During the fifth campaign no event of importance took place.

17. **Sixth Campaign: 1780.**—In this year Sir Henry Clinton took Charleston. Arnold, who commanded a fort on the Hudson river, deserted, and became a general in the British service. Major André, who had arranged the affair, being taken by the Ameri-

cans, was hanged as a spy by the orders of Washington, although many tried to turn the American leader from his stern purpose.

18. Seventh Campaign: 1781.—During the seventh campaign Lord Cornwallis was shut up in Yorktown, and forced to surrender with 7,000 men. This was the decisive blow ; for although the war went on for another campaign, the American colonies were now really severed from the British empire.

19. Treaty of Versailles: 1783.—In November 1783, George the Third entered the House of Lords and with a faltering voice read a paper, in which he acknowledged the independence of the United States of America. He closed his reading with the prayer that neither Great Britain nor America might suffer from the separation. By the Treaty of Versailles the thirteen United States of America were declared to be free. They became a Republic, and chose George Washington as their first President.

20. Wars in Europe: 1779–1782.—During the latter part of the American War Britain engaged in a war nearer home. France, Spain, and Holland were in arms against her. Russia, Sweden, and Denmark had formed an armed neutrality ; which means that they were ready to attack her when they thought it was safe to do so. The chief event of the war was the unsuccessful siege of Gibraltar for three years by the French and Spaniards. The Treaty of Versailles not only ended the American War, but it also put an end to the fighting in Europe.

21. Proposed Reform.—While the American War was in progress, England had not been entirely

quiet at home. The King's Government was not ruling the country in accordance with the wishes of the people. In 1780 a motion was passed in the House of Commons declaring "that the power of the Crown has increased, is increasing, and ought to be diminished." A bill proposing annual parliaments, manhood suffrage, and electoral districts, was introduced into the House of Lords; but it did not pass. Manhood suffrage meant that every man of full age should have a right to vote for members of Parliament, and electoral districts meant the division of the country into equal parts for the election of members.

22. **The Gordon Riots : 1780.**—Some of the severe and unjust laws that had been passed against the Roman Catholics were now repealed. They were allowed to acquire land, and their priests were permitted to say mass. These concessions raised such a strong feeling in the country that a riot broke out in London when Lord George Gordon presented a petition to Parliament against them. For some days London was at the mercy of a furious mob which set fire to Roman Catholic chapels, plundered houses, broke open Newgate prison, and set the prisoners free. No one was safe who did not wear a blue ribbon to show that he was a Protestant, and chalked "No Popery" on the door of his house. It is said that one person, to make doubly sure, wrote, "No religion whatever." A large amount of property was destroyed, and many lives were lost, and the riot was not put down till the soldiers fired on the mob. A description of these events is given in Charles Dickens's novel *Barnaby Rudge*.

57. GEORGE III. (Part II.)

1. Lord Clive.—While we were losing our colonies in America, changes were taking place in India which brought the trading settlements in that country under the direct control of the Government. When Clive, now Lord Clive, left India in 1760, things began to go wrong. The natives became more and more unfriendly, because they were unfairly treated by the traders. Everything was in disorder. In 1765 Clive returned to India as Governor of Bengal, and after great labour he managed to put things right. But in doing so he aroused much ill-will against himself, and on his return to England he was charged by his enemies with having abused his powers. It was nothing to them that he had gained an empire, and had made the people happier under British rule than they had been under their own kings. They set themselves to hunt him to death, and they succeeded; for although the House of Commons freed him from blame, he was so worried by all that he had gone through, that he put an end to his own life in 1774, at the age of forty-nine years.

2. Warren Hastings.—Warren Hastings, the Governor of Bengal, became in 1773 the first Governor-General of India. He did not deal as fairly with the natives as Clive had done, but on the whole he ruled justly and well. He carried on a great war with the Mahrattas, who lived far inland; and overthrew Hyder Ali, the Sultan of Mysore. When Hastings returned to England he was put on his trial, as Clive had been. He was charged before



EDMUND BURKE.

the House of Lords with having hired out British troops to put down free native princes, and also with having forced native princes to give him large sums of money. The trial lasted nearly eight years (1788–1795). The great orators, Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, all spoke against him; but Hastings was found not guilty. The trial left him penniless. He spent the rest of his days in retirement on a pension allowed him by the East India Company.

3. **Lord Cornwallis Governor-General.**—Hastings left India in 1785, and Lord Cornwallis became the next Governor-General. He carried on war against Tippoo Saib, the son of Hyder Ali, and in 1792 forced him



CHARLES JAMES FOX.

to yield. Tippoo renewed the fight in 1799 ; but the town of Seringapatam was stormed by Sir David Baird, and Tippoo was slain. Colonel Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, was Governor of Mysore, and took a leading part in the fighting. He showed here the beginnings of that military skill which afterwards made him so famous.

4. **William Pitt (the younger) : 1783.**—William Pitt, the second son of William Pitt, the Earl of Chatham, became Prime Minister at the age of twenty-four. He was the youngest man who had ever filled that important office. He was a very able man ; but during his first year of office he had a hard battle to fight in the House of Commons. Gradually he



WILLIAM Pitt, SECOND SON OF THE EARL OF CHATHAM.

won over the members to his side, and when a new Parliament was elected in 1784 Pitt had the greater number of members on his side. He had now the confidence of both the King and the people, and he remained in power for nearly all the rest of his life. He died in 1806.

5. **Board of Control:** 1784.—The charges made against Lord Clive and Warren Hastings had shown that those who held power in India were not so just and merciful as they ought to have been, and that many acts of oppression were constantly taking place. The East India Company had been the rulers of British India ever since they had received their charter from Queen Elizabeth in 1600.

The Company had done much for India ; but they were unable, or unwilling, to check the evils which were caused by those who went out there only to make money. Pitt therefore passed an act which provided for the better government of India. It appointed a Board of Control to rule the country, leaving the East India Company free to carry on the trade for which it was first formed. This arrangement continued in force till 1858.

6. Slave Trade : 1788.—The slave trade, begun in Queen Elizabeth's reign, now came before Parliament for the first time. Horrible tales were told of how negroes were seized in Africa, packed in ships, and carried across the Atlantic to work as slaves in the West Indies and in America. It is said that at the beginning of George the Third's reign not less than 50,000 blacks were carried off every year in English ships. William Wilberforce brought in a bill, and tried to persuade Parliament to stop the slave trade; but the slave merchants, who had their head-quarters in Liverpool, got the bill thrown out. It was eighteen years afterwards before the slave trade was abolished.

7. The French Revolution : 1789.—For many years the French had been growing weary of the great burdens laid on them by their kings and nobles. The laws were unjust, and the taxes were not fairly levied on all ranks alike. Tradesmen, farmers, and labourers were made to pay heavily, while nobles got off without paying anything. At last the people rose in rebellion against all in authority. The mob of Paris stormed the great French prison called the

Bastille, and set the prisoners free. They also put to death their rulers and many of their leading men. All France was drenched in blood. This Reign of Terror, as it was called, lasted for more than a year.

8. In 1792 the French set up another form of government without a monarch, called a Republic, and sent a message to the British people offering to help them to do the same. In the following year they beheaded their King and Queen, Louis the Sixteenth and Marie Antoinette. All the revolts against the Republic were put down with much cruelty and bloodshed. In La Vendée many brave deeds were done, but nothing could stand against the forces of the Republic. The people of Toulon obtained the help of a British force, from some British ships then there; but it was driven out, and the town nearly blown to pieces, by a young French (Corsican) officer named Napoleon Bonaparte, afterwards the famous Emperor.

9. Great Britain and the Revolution.—The French Revolution caused much fear amongst our leading men. Would the movement against those in authority extend to this country, and the poor and the ignorant be induced to follow the example of their neighbours across the Channel? Such might have been the case, had not wise changes from time to time been made to improve the condition of the British people. It was the refusal of these reforms in France that had done all the mischief. Fox was in favour of the Revolution. He thought the French people had done right to put down the selfish nobles who had oppressed them. Burke

spoke strongly on the other side. He saw how much evil might happen in a country when law and order were overturned.

10. **War with France : 1793.**—At length the other countries of Europe felt that the French had carried matters too far in upsetting existing authority, and Great Britain, Spain, Holland, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and several smaller States united against them. Pitt, hoping the storm would soon pass over, did not wish to interfere; but the cruel deeds done in France had set the mass of the English people against that country, and the cry was in favour of war. The British were for the most part successful at sea, and in the East and West Indies; but when, along with the Austrians and Prussians, they attacked France by land, they were driven back. In the following year Holland, Prussia, and Spain made peace with France, leaving Austria, Russia, and Great Britain to carry on the war.

11. **Mutinies at Spithead and the Nore : 1797.**—Two mutinies took place at this time in the British Royal Navy: the one at Spithead, near the Isle of Wight; and the other at the Nore, in the mouth of the Thames. The sailors asked for better food, better pay, and kinder treatment. Those at Spithead returned to their duty at once on their wishes being granted. At the Nore the mutiny was not so easily dealt with. There the sailors proceeded to shut up the mouth of the Thames by anchoring the ships across the river. It was not till their ringleader, who called himself Rear-Admiral Parker, and several others, had been hanged, that the men returned to their duty.

12. Battles of St. Vincent and Camperdown: 1797.—The French, Spanish, and Dutch hoped that by uniting their fleets they would be able to defeat our fleet and invade the British Islands. Two great naval victories in the same year destroyed their plans. While the Spanish fleet of thirty-two ships was on its way to join the French at Brest, it was met off Cape St. Vincent by Admiral Jervis and Commodore Nelson with twenty-one ships. The Spaniards were defeated and driven back to Cadiz with the loss of four of their finest vessels. For this victory, Jervis was made Earl St. Vincent and Nelson became an admiral. Later in the year Admiral Duncan met and scattered the Dutch fleet off the village of Camperdown in Holland. This fleet was intended to protect a French force in its descent on Ireland to help the rebels there to obtain separation from England.

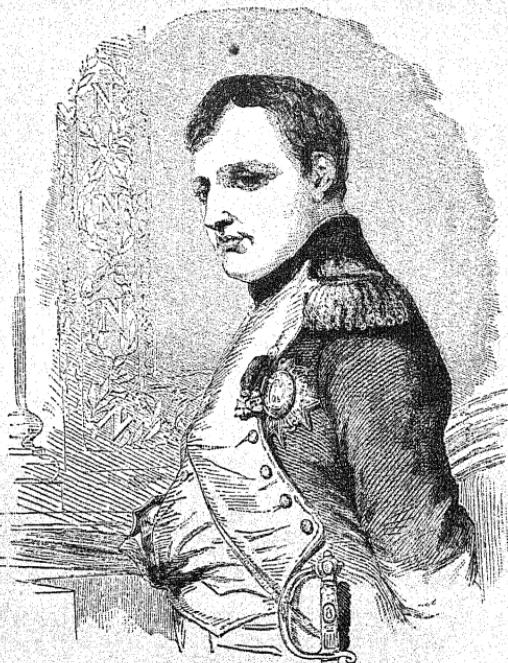
13. Ireland.—At this time Ireland was in a very unsettled state. An Irish Parliament sat at Dublin, but no Roman Catholic was allowed to be a member of it; and as most of the people were Roman Catholics, they felt that they were not fairly treated by the Government. The success of the French Revolution had caused the Irish to become very restless. Many of them wanted to be free from Great Britain, so when the French offered to help them they accepted the offer.

14. Battle of Vinegar Hill: 1798.—The United Irishmen, a great secret society formed to throw off British rule, rose in revolt. They were met at Vinegar Hill, in County Wexford, and defeated by

General Lake. They had mistimed their rising ; for the French help they had looked for had not come. Owing to a storm, only a very small part of the French fleet reached Ireland, and it was too late to be of any use. A small French force landed on the shores of Mayo, but the soldiers were all taken prisoners.

15. **Union of Great Britain and Ireland : 1801.**—To bring about a better state of things in Ireland, it was decided to unite the two Parliaments, and have but one Parliament for the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. After much discussion and the free use of money as bribes, the Union was agreed to. Ireland was to send thirty noblemen to the House of Lords, and one hundred—now one hundred and three—members to the House of Commons. There was also to be free trade between Great Britain and Ireland. The Union came into force on the 1st of January 1801.

16. **Catholic Emancipation.**—Pitt thought that was a good time to do away with the law that would not allow a Roman Catholic to be a member of Parliament or to fill a public office. He therefore proposed what is called the Emancipation of the Catholics. The King refused to allow any change to be made, and Pitt gave up the office he had held for seventeen years. The next Prime Minister was Henry Addington. He remained in office only three years, when Pitt again returned to power in 1804 ; but he had to agree to put off his plan for the relief of the Roman Catholics.



NAPOLION BONAPARTE.

58. GEORGE III. (Part III.)

1. **Napoleon Bonaparte.**—Napoleon Bonaparte, the young French officer who had driven the British out of Toulon, had risen quickly, and was now at the head of the French army. He believed that the best way to weaken Great Britain was to attack India. As the shortest road to that country, called the Overland Route, passed through Egypt and down the Red Sea, he sailed for Alexandria with a large fleet and a powerful army. On his way he took



NAPOLEON POINTING TO THE PYRAMIDS.

Malta without firing a shot. On his arrival in Egypt, Napoleon met and defeated an Egyptian army near Cairo, on the Nile, at the Battle of the Pyramids, in 1798. Before the battle the great French general pointed to the pyramids and said to his army, " Soldiers, remember that from these pyramids forty centuries look down on your deeds."

2. **Admiral Nelson.**—Napoleon was the greatest soldier France ever had, but his plans were upset by our greatest sailor. Admiral Nelson followed the French to Egypt, and in Aboukir Bay, at the mouth of the Nile, he completely destroyed the French fleet. Nelson was wounded during the battle, and when from the deck of his ship he was carried below, a doctor ran to attend him. "No," said the admiral; "I will take my turn with my brave fellows." His wound proved to be a slight one.

3. **French in Syria:** 1799–1801.—Having lost his fleet, Napoleon led his soldiers from Egypt into Syria, to meet a Turkish army that was gathering there. He tried to take the town of Acre; but the Turks, aided by a British force under Sir Sidney Smith, were able to hold their own, and the French were forced to retreat. Napoleon now returned to France, when he was made First Consul or President of the French Republic. His army, which had returned to Alexandria, was defeated there two years afterwards, in 1801. At this battle, Sir Ralph Abercromby, the British leader, was slain.

4. **Northern League.**—Napoleon next led an army against Austria, and defeated her twice—at Marengo



LORD NELSON.

and at Hohenlinden, in 1800—forcing her to accept his terms of peace. The Northern League was now formed against us by Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark, leaving us to struggle alone with France. The bombardment of Copenhagen at the Battle of the Baltic caused the Danes to submit to our terms and withdraw from the League. The defeat of the Danes and the death of the Emperor of Russia caused the League to be broken up, and a general peace was signed at Amiens in 1802. The peace did not last long. Malta had been taken by the British in 1800, and because we would not give it up at once the war began again. In 1804

Napoleon was made Emperor of the French, with the title of Napoleon the First.

5. Napoleon's threatened Invasion of Great Britain.

—The Emperor Napoleon had grown so powerful that Great Britain, Russia, Austria, and Sweden united against France and Spain. Napoleon's plan was to get the British men-of-war out of the way, in order that he might invade this country. To draw Nelson with his fleet away from the English Channel, Napoleon sent the French fleet out to sea as if to cross the Atlantic to attack the West Indies. Nelson followed; but the French turned again without being seen, and joined the Spanish fleet at Cadiz.

6. Nelson and the Battle of Trafalgar : 1805.—Nelson returned from the West Indies to England; but when he heard where the combined fleets lay, he sailed to meet Admiral Collingwood, who had been watching them. The French and Spanish fleets left the harbour of Cadiz, and on the 21st of October they were met by Nelson off Cape Trafalgar. The British fleet bore down on them in two columns, the one led by Nelson in the *Victory*, and the other led by Collingwood in the *Royal Sovereign*.

7. Before the battle began, Nelson made his last signal from the mast-head of his ship. At the time it roused the seamen to do great deeds; and even now our hearts are stirred when we read the noble words, "England expects every man to do his duty." In the midst of the fight the rigging of the *Victory* got entangled with that of the *Redoubtable*. One of the riflemen in the rigging of the French



THE DEATH OF NELSON.

ship saw a one-armed officer with many stars on his breast on the deck of the *Victory*. He fired, and the officer fell, shot through the shoulder. That shot was the death-stroke of Lord Nelson. To the captain of his ship he said, "They have done for me at last, Hardy: my back-bone is shot through." Three hours later he died, but not till he knew

that he had won a great victory. His last words were, "Thank God; I have done my duty." His body was taken to England and buried in St. Paul's Cathedral in London, amidst the tears of a whole nation. The Battle of Trafalgar at once freed Great Britain from all fear of invasion. The fleets of the enemy were not only defeated—they were destroyed. New ships must be built, and a new race of seamen reared to man them, before they could make another attack on the shores of our island home.

8. **Austerlitz**: 1805.—While Great Britain was successful at sea, Napoleon was successful on land. At Ulm he forced an Austrian army to surrender, and at Austerlitz he defeated the combined armies of Russia and Austria. This defeat broke up the alliance which Pitt had made with Russia, Austria, and Sweden.

9. **Death of Pitt**: 1806.—William Pitt died in January 1806, at the age of forty-six years. He was worn out with worry and hard work. The defeat at Austerlitz, which broke up the alliance he had made, was his death-blow. It is said that when Pitt heard the news he laid aside a map he was studying and said sadly, "Roll up the map of Europe." He had earned for himself the regard of his countrymen by his upright life and faithful service. He received a public funeral, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

10. **Death of Fox**: 1806.—In the new Ministry, Lord Grenville was Prime Minister, but Charles James Fox was the most important member. It contained the leaders of all parties, and was said to

have "all the talents" of the country. It did not last long, but it did one good thing—it put an end to the dreadful slave trade, and British ships were no longer allowed to carry off negroes to be sold as slaves. In September Fox died, aged fifty-seven. He, too, received a public funeral, and was laid in Westminster Abbey beside his great rival, Pitt.

11. **Defeat of the Prussians at Jena:** 1806.—Great Britain again, for the fourth time, made an alliance against France. This time her allies were Russia, Prussia, and Saxony. Napoleon struck the first blow at Prussia. At Jena he won a great victory, and a large part of Prussia fell into his hands.

12. **Berlin Decree:** 1807.—All Europe, except Russia and Great Britain, now lay at the feet of Napoleon: the one strong in her snowy steppes and thick forests of pine, and the other safe within her island shores, securely guarded by her wooden walls. From Berlin Napoleon sent forth his famous "Berlin Decree," in which he forbade all trade between Great Britain and the Continent, and ordered all British subjects found in countries held by France to be made prisoners of war. The British Government replied by sending out "Orders in Council," forbidding trade with France and her allies.

13. **George Canning.**—The Ministry of all the talents proposed to allow Roman Catholics to be officers in the army and navy. The King refused to agree to this, and asked all the ministers to resign. They did so, and a new Ministry was formed, with the Duke of Portland as Prime Minister and George Canning as Foreign Secretary.

14. **Treaty of Tilsit: 1807.**—Napoleon defeated the Russians at Eylau; and in the same year the Russian and French Emperors met on a raft on the river Niemen, and there drew up the Treaty of Tilsit. Russia and Prussia both agreed to carry out the Berlin Decree, and so help Napoleon to ruin the trade of England. When Canning heard of this treaty he sent out a fleet that bombarded Copenhagen and seized the Danish ships of war, to prevent them from being taken by Napoleon and used against Great Britain.

59. GEORGE III. (Part IV.)

1. **French in Portugal: 1807.**—Portugal had always been friendly to Great Britain, and when Napoleon sent out the Berlin Decree, Portugal would not agree to it. The French Emperor sent General Junot with 30,000 men to take Lisbon. The royal family fled to Brazil, in South America (at that time a dependency of Portugal); and Junot held Portugal, in the name of Napoleon. This was the beginning of the great Peninsular War, so called because it was fought in Spain and Portugal, which form a well-known peninsula south-west of France.

2. **French in Spain: 1808.**—The King of Spain had a quarrel with his eldest son, and asked Napoleon to advise him what to do. The Emperor, hoping to get Spain into his own hands, sent for both the father and the son. Having persuaded the King to give up his crown, he sent the son as a prisoner to another part of France, and then made his own

brother Joseph King of Spain. This brother he had already made King of Naples.

3. The Spaniards rose in arms, and asked Great Britain to help them. In 1808 Sir Arthur Welles-



ley, who afterwards became Duke of Wellington, was sent to the Peninsula with an army of 10,000 men. He landed in Portugal, and defeated the French at Vimiera, north of Lisbon. Soon after

this he was recalled, and his successor, Sir Hew Dalrymple, by the Convention of Cintra, a small town near Lisbon, allowed the French to leave Portugal with all their arms and warlike stores. For making this agreement Sir Hew was recalled, and his place was taken by Sir John Moore.

4. **Peninsular War.**—A French army had been made prisoners by the Spaniards, when Napoleon marched another army into Spain, beat the Spaniards, and entered Madrid. Sir John Moore, expecting the Spaniards to join him against the French, marched his army into the heart of Spain. The Spaniards did not help him, and he had to retreat before a much larger army than his own. He was followed by the French under Marshal Soult.

5. **Battle of Corunna: 1809.**—The British reached Corunna, in the north-west of Spain, before the ships which were to take them off had arrived. The French were close upon them, and there was nothing for it but to turn and fight. The French were defeated; but Sir John Moore was killed by a cannon ball. His hasty burial at night on the battle-field is beautifully told in Wolfe's poem:—

“ We buried him darkly at dead of night,
 The sods with our bayonets turning,
By the struggling moonbeams' misty light,
 And the lantern dimly burning.

“ No useless coffin enclosed his breast,
 Nor in sheet nor in shroud we wound him ;
But he lay like a warrior taking his rest,
 With his martial cloak around him.”

6. Wellington in Portugal: 1809.—In the following year Wellesley was sent back again to Portugal with a fresh army. He drove the French out of



BURIAL OF SIR JOHN MOORE.

Oporto, at the mouth of the Douro, and then pushed on to Madrid. On the way he met the French at



DUKE OF WELLINGTON.

Talavera, and defeated them. For this victory he was made Lord Wellington. Unable to reach Madrid in the face of the large French forces that guarded the city, Wellington retreated into Portugal. The French tried to drive the British to their ships; but in the Battle of Busaco, in 1810, they were beaten back with great loss; and Wellington retreated to Torres Vedras, where he threw up lines of defence, from the Tagus to the Atlantic, so strong that he could not be attacked within them. The French therefore withdrew to Spain.

7. **Wellington in Spain: 1812-14.**—Wellington invaded Spain for the third time in 1812. The two

great fortresses on the borders of Spain and Portugal were Ciudad Rodrigo (*The-oo-dad' Rod-re'-go*) and Badajoz (*Bad'-a-hos*). Both of these he took by storm; and then defeating the French army at the great Battle of Salamanca, he found the way open to Madrid. In 1813 Wellington again beat the French at Vitoria, and drove them across the Pyrenees, out of Spain. Following them into France, he overtook them at Toulouse, where he defeated and scattered them in 1814.

8. **Napoleon in Russia:** 1812.—While the fighting was going on in the Peninsula, Napoleon was marching a large army into the heart of Russia. The burning of Moscow by the Russians, that the French might not get shelter within its walls, forced the invaders to retreat, followed by the Russian army. That retreat in winter over the frozen plains completely destroyed Napoleon's army. Only 20,000 men returned to France, leaving 400,000 lying dead under the snows of Russia.

9. **Napoleon a Prisoner:** 1814.—With his armies driven out of the Peninsula and destroyed in Russia, Napoleon had now to fight for his own throne. He had kept Europe in constant strife for years at a cost of millions of money and more than a million of lives. The whole Continent was against him. At Leipzig he was defeated by the united armies of Russia, Prussia, Austria, and Sweden, and followed to Paris, where he agreed, by what is known as the First Treaty of Paris, to give up his throne. He was sent to the island of Elba in the Mediterranean. Wellington was made a duke, and received the

thanks or both Houses of Parliament, who also gave him a present of £400,000.

10. **The Burdett Riots: 1810.**—The years of fighting drained Great Britain of both men and money. The burden of the wars lay heavily on the people. They had to pay so much in taxes, and food was so dear that thousands could not get enough food to eat. So few of the people had votes for electing members of the House of Commons, that they had no means of making themselves heard in Parliament. Sir Francis Burdett said that votes should be given to a greater number of the people, and he wrote a book against the House of Commons. For this he was put in prison; but the people took his part, held public meetings, and broke out into riots in London.

11. **The Prince-Regent.**—At this time a famous Irish lawyer, named Daniel O'Connell, tried to break up or repeal the union between Great Britain and Ireland. In the midst of all these troubles the King, who had several times gone out of his mind, became hopelessly insane. In the following year George, Prince of Wales, as Prince-Regent, ruled in the name of the King.

12. **Bad Trade: 1811.**—Not only had our wars cost us a great deal of money, but they had also done great harm to our trade. Less business was done at home, because people had not money to spend; and fewer goods were sent abroad, because the war closed a great many ports to our merchants. Men out of work were seen everywhere, and in some towns there were great riots to put down the use

of machinery; for the people said it was doing work that should be done by men and women. Warehouses and mills were attacked, and machines were broken, by bands of angry workmen who could not get employment. It was not till some of them were imprisoned and others hanged that the riots ended.

13. **Prime Minister shot:** 1812.—The Prime Minister at this time was Mr. Perceval. He was shot in the lobby of the House of Commons by a man named Bellingham, whose business had been ruined by the war. Lord Liverpool became Prime Minister, and Robert Peel was Secretary for Ireland.

14. **War with the United States:** 1812.—A war with the United States of America arose out of the "Orders in Council," which had been made in answer to the "Berlin Decree" of Napoleon. Great Britain also claimed the right of searching the ships of the United States for deserters from the Royal Navy. On these two grounds war was begun. The Americans crossed into Canada, but failed to do any harm. The British burned the public buildings of Washington, the capital of the United States. A fight took place between the *Shannon* and the *Chesapeake*, the former a British and the latter an American man-of-war. Although the *Shannon* was the smaller of the two, the *Chesapeake* was boarded and taken within a quarter of an hour. The British were driven back with some loss at New Orleans, on the Mississippi. The Treaty of Ghent brought the war to an end in December 1814.

60. GEORGE III. (Part V.)

1. Napoleon leaves Elba : 1815.—While a congress was sitting at Vienna to bring order out of the confusion which the wars had caused in Europe, word was brought that Napoleon had left Elba, and was on his way to Paris. Within twenty days he was once more Emperor of France. The anger and alarm which this news caused all over Europe were very great. The British Parliament voted £90,000,000 for Napoleon's overthrow. Wellington was put at the head of 80,000 men, while the Prussians sent 110,000 under Blücher.

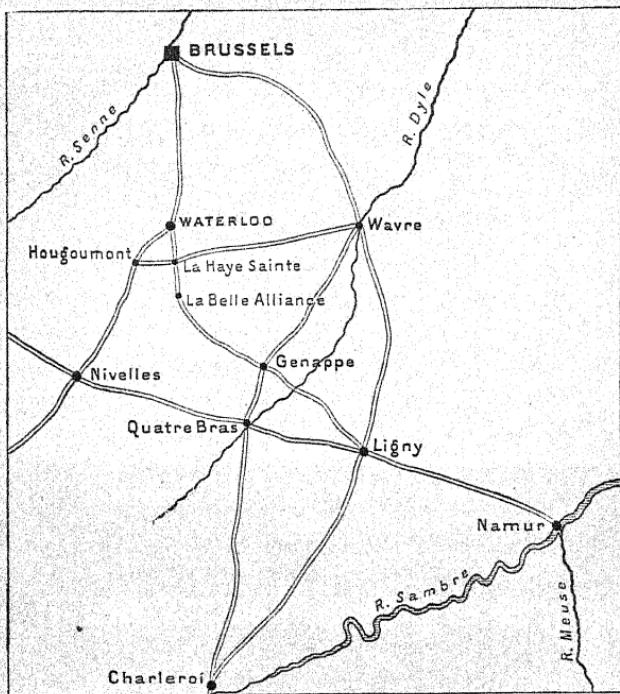
2. Napoleon and Wellington.—Wellington's plan was to join the Prussians, and then march to Paris. Napoleon wished to fight each army before they could unite. On the 15th of June he crossed from France into Belgium. The British were at Brussels, while the Prussians were at Ligny, some miles distant.

3. Wellington heard that Napoleon was on the way, on the afternoon of the 15th of June, and word was passed round to his officers while at a ball given by the Duchess of Richmond. He wished to reach Quatre Bras, a place about twenty miles off, on the highroad from Charleroi to Brussels, before the French could come up. Quatre Bras means "four arms," and is so called because two great roads cross each other there. One road leads to Ligny, where the Prussians were, and Wellington wished to get to this point, so as to join with them before Napoleon could get between the two armies.

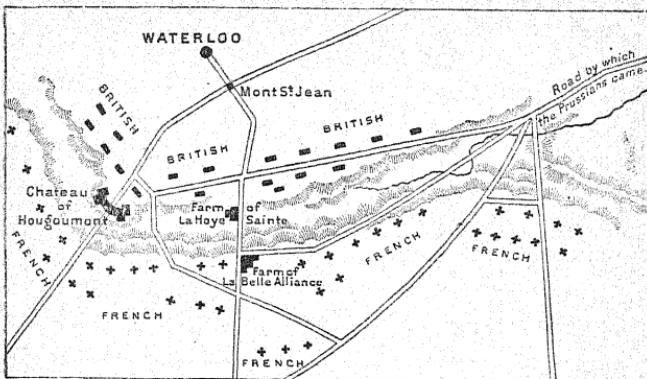
4. **Quatre Bras and Ligny.**—On the 16th of June, Napoleon divided his army into two parts. With one he went himself along the road to Ligny to meet the Prussians; and he sent the other, under Marshal Ney, to Quatre Bras to meet Wellington. The Prussians were driven away to the north, beyond Ligny, along the road towards Wavre, and 35,000 men, under Grouchy, sent after them to keep them from getting nearer to Wellington.

5. At Quatre Bras, Ney was driven back by the British; but when Wellington heard that the Prussians were unable to come to him by that road, he fell back to Waterloo, from which another road led to the place where the Prussians now were. Napoleon had taken a cross road from Ligny to the one on which the British were moving. Wellington was before him, however, and drew up his army along a slight ridge which crosses the road to Brussels at right angles. Here, if anywhere, it would be easy for Blücher to join him.

6. **The Battle of Waterloo: June 18, 1815.**—The Battle of Waterloo was fought on Sunday, the 18th of June. Much rain had fallen the night before, and the morning was still wet when the men on both sides rose to get ready for the fight. Wellington had 70,000 and Napoleon 80,000 men. The armies faced each other on two gentle slopes, across which ran the highroad to Brussels. In the hollow between was the farm-house of La Haye Sainte, and towards the west, on the northern slope, was the mansion-house of Hougoumont. Around these the hottest fighting took place.



7. The battle began about eleven o'clock. Napoleon knew he was a ruined man unless he could break the dark red masses between him and Brussels. He kept to one plan of action—a storm of shot and shell, and then a rapid charge of horse on the British squares. The British met every charge like the rocks that surround their native coast. Between four and five o'clock, the Prussians, who had outmarched Grouchy, were seen in the wood to the east of the field. This caused Napoleon to make his last great effort. He brought up



the Old Guard of France, who had been kept behind, and were now fresh for work. When they were within fifty yards of the top of the ascent, the British Guards started to their feet and drove them down the hill.

8. Wellington himself now rode forward with the words, "Let the whole line advance." This was done, and the great mass, that had stood on the hill since morning, swept forward and drove back towards France what remained of the grand army. 40,000 French, 16,000 Prussians, 13,000 British and Germans, were killed.

"Rider and horse, friend, foe, in one red burial blent!"

9. Napoleon, who turned pale when he saw his favourite Guard broken by the fire of the British, and cried, "They are mixed together!" fled, but afterwards gave himself up to the British. He was sent a prisoner to the island of St. Helena, where he lived for six years, and died in 1821.

10. Peace : 1815.—The Second Treaty of Paris put an end to the long and terrible war, which had lasted twenty-two years. When the war began the National Debt was £239,000,000, and when it came to an end it had grown to £860,000,000. As we have already seen, hundreds of thousands of lives had been lost, and this made the country less able for the burden which it had now to bear. It was well that James Watt had got his steam-engine to work, and that Arkwright and others had made their spinning frames and looms before this time, else it is likely that the strain would have been too great for the country to bear.

11. The introduction of machinery driven by steam was not at first regarded as a blessing by the working classes. Their means of livelihood were taken away, and skilled workmen could not earn more than a few shillings a week. At length, however, factories were built; population increased; cities sprang up; wealth grew apace. Manchester, Leeds, Sheffield, Liverpool, and other great centres of industry made the north of England a new country. But much suffering had to be endured before these happy results were seen.

12. Corn Act : 1815.—During the war little corn had come in from abroad, and therefore it had become very dear. To keep it from getting cheaper when the war was over, a law was passed forbidding any grain from abroad to be brought into the country till wheat had risen to eighty shillings per quarter. This gave the British farmer more for his corn, but made food very dear. Many were un-

able to get enough to keep them alive, or to keep up their strength for work. This law therefore made the country poorer. Riots took place in the larger towns, which led to great destruction of property and some loss of life.

13. "Blanketeers."—Riots and unlawful meetings took place all over the land. Strong means were tried to put them down, and at Derby three of the ringleaders were hanged. Things grew worse for the next two years. Those who were out of work met together in large numbers. They thought and openly said that all things were done for the good of the upper classes, while the poor were left to starve. A band of workmen set out to walk from Manchester to London, to lay their hardships before Parliament. They took with them a blanket each, in which to sleep by the wayside. This got for them the name of "Blanketeers." They were stopped by the troops.

14. The "Battle of Peterloo."—In 1819 "Six Acts" were passed in order to keep the people down. A large meeting was held in St. Peter's field at Manchester. There were 100,000 persons there, to ask for reform. The soldiers were sent to scatter them, and take Orator Hunt, who was chief speaker, prisoner. Some were killed and many wounded. This was called, in scorn, the "Battle of Peterloo."

15. Death of George.—On the twenty-fourth of May 1819, Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent, the fourth son of the King, was born. In January of next year the Duke of Kent died; and six days after, the old King, who was blind and insane, fol-

lowed him to the grave. He was eighty-one years of age, and had been King for almost sixty years. No other King or Queen has been so long upon the throne. He was a good man, and in many ways a good King. In spite of his fondness for power, he did his best for the good of his people, and was himself liked by them. His homely way of living won for him the name of "Farmer George."

16. **Noted Persons.**—A great many famous persons lived during this reign. Robert Burns, the national poet of Scotland, wrote *The Cottar's Saturday Night*; Lord Byron wrote *Childe Harold*; William Cowper wrote *The Task* and *John Gilpin*; and Thomas Gray wrote the *Elegy in a Country Churchyard*. The chief novelists and poets were Sir Walter Scott and Oliver Goldsmith. Scott wrote *The Lady of the Lake*, *Marmion*, and also the Waverley Novels. Goldsmith wrote *The Deserted Village* and *The Vicar of Wakefield*. Dr. Johnson was the author of a great dictionary; Hume wrote a *History of England*; and Gibbon was the author of *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*. Among the inventors of the reign were James Watt, who improved the steam-engine; and Arkwright, Crompton, and Hargreaves, who invented machines for spinning and weaving. Sir Humphrey Davy invented the safety-lamp for miners; gas was first used for lighting purposes; Josiah Wedgwood founded "the Potteries." John Smeaton built the famous Eddystone Lighthouse, and Sir William Herschel discovered a new planet now called Uranus.



OLIVER GOLDSMITH

1728-1774

NOVELIST, POET, ETC.

He wrote *The Vicar of Wakefield*, *The Deserted Village*, etc.



SAMUEL JOHNSON

1709-1784

LEXICOGRAPHER

He wrote *A Dictionary of the English Language*,
Lives of the Poets, etc.



EDWARD GIBBON

1737-1794

HISTORIAN

He wrote *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, etc.



ROBERT BURNS

1759-1796

POET

He wrote *The Cotter's Saturday Night*,
Scots Wha Hae, etc.

GREAT AUTHORS



WILLIAM COWPER

1731-1800

POET

He wrote *The Task*, *History of John Gilpin*, etc.



LORD BYRON

1788-1824

POET

He wrote *Childe Harold*, etc.



SIR WALTER SCOTT

1771-1832

NOVELIST AND POET.

He wrote *The Waverley Novels* [*Ivanhoe*, etc.],
Lady of the Lake, *Marmion*, etc.



ROBERT SOUTHEY

1774-1843

POET (Laureate)

He wrote *The Curse of Kehama*, *Life of Nelson*, etc.

G R E A T A U T H O R S



61. GEORGE IV

1820 to 1830: 10 years.

1. **George the Fourth.**—George the Fourth was the eldest son of George the Third. He had already ruled for nine years as Prince-Regent during the illness of his father. Lord Liverpool, who had been Prime Minister for about eight years, continued in office.

2. George and his wife, Caroline of Brunswick, had not been friends for many years before he became King. During most of their married life they had lived apart; but when Caroline heard that her husband had succeeded to the throne, she came from Italy to England to claim her place as Queen. The King asked the House of Lords to declare that she was no longer his wife; but this was so strongly opposed by Henry Brougham, who acted as counsel for Caroline, that George withdrew the request. On the day that he was crowned, Caroline went to Westminster Abbey, but she was turned away from the door. This was more than she could bear: she became very ill, and nineteen days later she died.

3. **Cato Street Conspiracy : 1820.**—The people had been growing very restless during the later part of the last reign. The long wars and bad trade had caused much suffering, and loud outcries were made at the way in which the business of the country was being carried on. Soon after George became King a plot was formed to kill the ministers, set London on fire, and throw open the prisons. By this wild plan a few desperate men hoped to bring about a change in the Government. The plot was discovered, and the parties to it were found in a hay-loft in Cato Street, London. A fight took place, and a policeman was killed; but the plotters were made prisoners. Thistlewood, the leader, and four others were hanged. The rest were transported. About the same time a rising of Glasgow weavers was put down by a body of yeomanry and volunteers.

4. **George in Ireland and Scotland.**—George paid a



GEORGE CANNING.

visit to Ireland in 1821. He was received by the people with great joy. He was the first British King who had gone to Ireland on a visit of peace. In 1822 the King spent thirteen days in Scotland. During this visit he received the sad news that one of his ministers—Lord Castlereagh, Marquis of Londonderry—had committed suicide. Mr. George Canning took Castlereagh's place as Foreign Secretary.

5. **Three great Questions.**—Great changes had taken place in the government of the country since the Stewarts had striven for sole power and had lost the crown. Yet there were many changes still

needed before the people would be satisfied. Three things in particular were demanded :—

(1.) Freedom of trade—to alter such laws as the Corn Act of 1815, which put a heavy tax on imports from other countries, and so hindered trade by making things dear.

(2.) Roman Catholic Emancipation—to allow Roman Catholics to hold public offices and to become members of Parliament.

(3.) Reform of Parliament—to give the right of voting for members of the House of Commons to a larger number of people, and to take members from small villages and give them to large towns which had grown up in recent years.

6. First Burmese War: 1824.—The British who had settlements in Burma, a part of Farther India, complained of ill-treatment on the part of the Burmese. A war followed, and Rangoon was taken. The following year the whole sea-coast on the east of the Bay of Bengal was added to our Indian Empire, and was called British Burma.

7. Death of Liverpool and Canning.—Lord Liverpool died in 1827, and Canning became Prime Minister. Robert Peel and the Duke of Wellington opposed him, because for some years he had taken the side of the Roman Catholics. He was, however, supported by Henry (afterwards Lord) Brougham and others of the Whig party in the House of Commons. Canning did not live long after he became Prime Minister. He was worn out with hard work, and died within four months. Lord Goderich was the next Prime Minister.

8. **War with Turkey : 1827.**—The Turks had ruled over Greece for about four hundred years; but for the past five years the Greeks had been striving to obtain their freedom. Great Britain, France, and Russia were on their side; and in October 1827, the fleets of these countries, led by Admiral Codrington, defeated Turkey and Egypt at the Battle of Navarino. After this Greece became free, and was formed into a kingdom. She has had a King of her own since 1832.

9. **Repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts : 1828.**—As ministers could not agree on the best way to meet the demands of the people, Lord Goderich resigned, after he had been Prime Minister only five months. The Duke of Wellington took his place, and Robert Peel and Lord Palmerston were two of the ministers. The Test and Corporation Acts, passed in the reign of Charles the Second to prevent those who were not members of the Church of England from holding public offices, were still in force. Lord John Russell proposed that these Acts should be done away with. Peel and Palmerston opposed him; but Russell had the people with him, and the Acts were repealed. This gave Dissenters their rights, though Roman Catholics were still excluded.

10. **Daniel O'Connell.**—The next thing was to do away with the law which prevented Roman Catholics from being members of Parliament. Daniel O'Connell, who was a great orator, and who had obtained much influence over the people, was the leader of the Irish party in Ireland. He was elected as mem-

ber for County Clare; but when he presented himself in the House of Commons, he was not allowed to take his seat because he was a Roman Catholic.

11. **Roman Catholic Emancipation Act : 1829.**—This caused a great stir not only in Ireland but also among the friends of freedom in England. Both Wellington and Peel desired to keep the law as it was; but afraid of a rebellion in Ireland, they gave way, and Roman Catholics were placed on an equal footing with their Protestant fellow-subjects.

12. **The new Police : 1829.**—Although the population of London was now a million and a half, it still had no effective police. The guardians of the peace were mostly infirm old men who spent much of their time dozing in sentry-boxes. During the last year of the reign, Sir Robert Peel passed a bill which provided a new and thoroughly efficient police force. From their founder they were called in derision "Bobbies" and "Peelers."

13. **Death of George.**—George reigned ten years, and died at the age of sixty-eight. From his fine manners and fondness for dress, he was called "the first gentleman in Europe." He was not worthy of the name. He lived a wicked life, and was a weak and useless King. Having no child to succeed him, the crown passed to his brother William, Duke of Clarence.

**62. WILLIAM IV.**

1830 to 1837: 7 years.

1. **William the Fourth : 1830.**—William the Fourth was the third son of George the Third, and brother of George the Fourth. He was sixty-five years old when he became King. His wife was Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen in Germany. She was a good woman, and by her pure and useful life she set an example to all around her.

2. Revolution and Reform : 1830.—Again the French people rose against their rulers. They drove Charles the Tenth, who had been made King some years after the Battle of Waterloo, out of the country. Belgium also separated from Holland, to which it had been united. This stir among other nations caused the people of Great Britain to demand more than ever the Reform of the House of Commons, and the Government was now more ready to give heed to the call. A new Parliament met towards the end of the year, and a great many of its members were in favour of a change. The Duke of Wellington, who would not agree to it, gave way to a Whig Ministry, of which the leaders were Earl Grey and Lord John Russell. Before a Bill passes through the House of Commons or the House of Lords it has to be voted on three times. Each time is called a "reading" of the Bill, and unless at each reading it has a majority in its favour—that is, has more votes for it than against it—it does not pass.

3. Reform Bill : 1832.—On the 1st of March 1831 Lord John Russell brought a Reform Bill into the House of Commons. The first reading had only one more vote for it than against it. This was not enough to enable the Government to carry the Bill through all its stages. They therefore brought the Parliament to an end, and a new House of Commons had to be chosen. Riots took place in various parts of the country. In Birmingham bells were muffled and tolled; Nottingham Castle was fired; and in Bristol the mob took possession of the city and set the prisoners free. In these riots some lives were

lost, and a good deal of property was destroyed. In the new House of Commons the Bill was easily carried, but the House of Lords refused to pass it.

4. Without loss of time the Bill was brought in again in the House of Commons, and again sent to the House of Lords on the 12th of December 1831. The Lords were still so much against it that Earl Grey asked the King to create as many new Lords who would vote for it as would carry it through the House. The King was not willing to do this, and Earl Grey therefore resigned office as Prime Minister.

5. **How the Bill was passed.**—The Duke of Wellington was called upon by the King to take his place. The people, who had set their minds upon having the Bill passed, were in an angry mood. Even the memory of Waterloo did not shield the Duke from outrage by the mob of London. Wellington failed to form a ministry—that is, he could not persuade enough leading men to take office with him to carry on the government—and therefore Earl Grey had to come back again. The King was now willing to create new Lords; but they were not needed. One hundred members of the House of Lords who had formerly voted against the Bill stayed away, and it was carried.

6. **Changes made by the Reform Act.**—The following changes were made by the new Reform Act:—

(1.) Many places—called pocket-boroughs—in which there were few voters lost the right of sending members to Parliament. The most noted case

was that of Old Sarum, near Salisbury, where not a single house then stood.

(2.) Large towns, like Birmingham, Leeds, Manchester, and Sheffield, which had grown up within the last hundred years, received for the first time the right of choosing members of Parliament.

(3.) The right of voting was given to a greater number of persons. In towns, those who owned or lived in a house for which a rent of £10 a year was paid, and in counties those who owned houses or land worth £10 a year, or who paid a rent of at least £50, were allowed to vote.

These changes brought the House of Commons and the country into a better understanding with each other. Instead of acting only for the good of the few who formerly chose the members, the Reformed House began to work for the good of all. It had become "the People's House of Parliament." A Reform Bill for Scotland and another for Ireland were passed the same year.

7. Slavery abolished : 1833.—William Wilberforce had struggled for forty-five years to obtain freedom for the slaves in the West Indies. The slave-trade had been done away with in 1807, but there were still 800,000 slaves under British rule. The Reformed Parliament set the slaves free. It agreed to pay the slave-owners £20,000,000 sterling to make up for their loss. The slaves were not allowed to leave their masters at once. They were bound to work on for five years, but they were to be paid wages for their services. Three days after the passing of the Act Wilberforce died, at the age

of seventy-five. He lived to know that his life's work was done. To him chiefly is due the glory of abolishing slavery in the British dominions. He was buried in Westminster Abbey.

8. **New Poor Law: 1834.**—Earl Grey, who had been Prime Minister since the Reform Act passed, now left the Ministry, and Lord Melbourne took his place. His first work was the making of a new Poor Law. The money needed to relieve the poor of the country had risen to £8,000,000 a year. Much of this was given to men and women who were strong enough but too idle to work. By the new law help was not to be given to those who were able to work, unless they were willing to go to the poor-house and there work for a living. Government took means to see from time to time that this was being done.

9. **Trade-Unions.**—Since the time of Edward the Third, working-men had been forbidden by law to unite with one another even for the protection of their own interests. Their wages were also fixed. These laws were done away with in 1825. Thereafter trade-unions sprang up all over the country, and this very often led to much misunderstanding between masters and workmen. In 1834 the tailors of London refused to work unless they received better wages. The weavers of Leeds and the calico-printers of Glasgow did the same. In each case, while the struggle lasted, the loss of wages led to great suffering on the part of the workmen and their families.

10. **Municipal Reform Act: 1835.**—The number of

changes which had taken place in so short a time began to alarm the King. He therefore changed his ministers, and Robert Peel became Prime Minister. Peel, however, could not get the House of Commons to follow him. He caused a new election to take place, but this did not help him. At the end of four months Lord Melbourne came back to power. The first thing this new Parliament did was to reform the town councils of England and Wales, as well as those of Scotland and Ireland. The right of choosing councillors was given to those who paid rates in the towns. The councillors chose the magistrates from among themselves.

11. **Coaches and Railways.**—Up to this time people had travelled in stage-coaches at the rate of eight or ten miles an hour. Goods were conveyed in waggons drawn by horses over tram-roads, or in boats on the canals. Now a greater and quicker moving power was needed, for the use of steam in manufacturing goods had caused a great increase in the trade of the country, and there was no rapid means of conveyance. To meet this want travelling engines or locomotives were built to run over iron roads or railway lines.

12. **The first Railways.**—George Stephenson built the first railway in England from Stockton to Darlington in 1825; but the trains on it ran at the rate of only five or six miles an hour. He then made a railway from Liverpool to Manchester, and built engines that were able to run at the rate of thirty miles an hour. The line was opened with a procession of trains, in the presence of the



TRAVELLING ONE HUNDRED YEARS AGO.

Duke of Wellington and a great gathering of people, September 15th, 1830. This was the beginning of the great railway system now spread all over the country. In 1838 the Atlantic was crossed by a steamer for the first time.

13. Death of William.—The King died on the 20th of June 1837, at the age of seventy-two. When a young man he had been for some time a sailor, and was called the "Sailor King." He was warm-hearted and simple in manners, and his people loved and trusted him. He left no children.



SIR ISAAC NEWTON

1642-1727

PHILOSOPHER AND MATHEMATICIAN

Discovered the law of gravitation.



JOHN SMEATON

1724-1792

CIVIL ENGINEER

Built Eddystone Lighthouse.



SIR RICHARD ARKWRIGHT

1732-1792

INVENTOR

Invented the spinning-jenny. Founder of our cotton manufacture.



JOSIAH WEDGWOOD

1730-1795

POTTER AND INVENTOR

Invented Wedgwoodware. Founder of our pottery trade.

GREAT INVENTORS, &c.



JAMES WATT
1736-1819
INVENTOR AND ENGINEER
Improver of the steam-engine.



SIR HUMPHRY DAVY
1778-1829
CHEMIST
Invented the miner's safety-lamp.



GEORGE STEPHENSON
1781-1848
ENGINEER
Invented the locomotive steam-engine.



SIR WILLIAM HERSCHEL
1738-1822
ASTRONOMER
Discovered the planet Uranus.

GREAT INVENTORS, &c.



63. VICTORIA. (Part I.)

1837 to 1901: 64 years.

1. Queen Victoria : 1837.—Queen Victoria was the daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, the brother of William the Fourth, and the fourth son of George the Third. In her lineage Queen Victoria represented nearly the whole past sovereignty of the land. The blood of Cerdic, the first Saxon King, and of William the Conqueror, flowed in her veins. The young Queen



PRINCE ALBERT.

ascended the throne June 20th, 1837, a month after her eighteenth birthday. Her father died in 1820, but she had been carefully trained by her mother, the Duchess of Kent, for her high position.

2. Queen Victoria's Family.—In 1840, Queen Victoria married Prince Albert of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, who received the title of Prince Consort. He died in 1861. Their family consisted of four sons—Albert Edward (afterwards Edward the Seventh), Alfred, Arthur, and Leopold ; and five daughters—Victoria, Alice, Helena, Louise, and Beatrice. Princess Alice died in 1878 ; Leopold, Duke of Albany, in 1884 ; Alfred, Duke of Saxe-Coburg and Gotha, in 1900 ; Victoria, Dowager Empress of Germany, in 1901 ; and Albert Edward, in 1910.

3. **Hanover.**—By the accession of George the First in 1714, the crowns of Britain and Hanover were united; but when Queen Victoria came to the throne, Hanover became a separate kingdom, as there is in that country a law, called the Salic law, against any woman wearing the crown. Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, fifth son of George the Third, then became its King. Hanover was added to Prussia in 1866.

4. **Melbourne Prime Minister.**—Lord Melbourne, who was Prime Minister when William died, continued in office. The change of Sovereign was greatly in his favour, for the young Queen needed his advice and guidance in all public affairs. He was a kindly, easy-going man, who believed in letting things remain as they were as long as possible. This could not last, for many of the people were in great want. Wages were low, food was dear, working hours were too long, workrooms were unhealthy, and the houses of the poor were often unfit to live in.

5. **A new Order of Things.**—The Georges and William the Fourth had insisted on changing their ministers or chief political advisers when they pleased without giving Parliament any reason for the change. That system, the last vestige of personal government—that is, the Crown acting without the advice of the nation—died with the late King. With the coronation of Victoria the principle was established that henceforth the Sovereign of the British Empire cannot remove a Prime Minister or his Cabinet without the consent of the House of Commons; nor, on the other hand, would the Sov-



RICHARD COBDEN.

ereign now venture to retain a ministry which the Commons refused to support. Custom, too, has decided that the Sovereign must sanction any bill approved by Parliament. Queen Anne, in 1707, was the last monarch who vetoed a bill.

6. **The Corn Law and Free Trade: 1838–1846.**—The Corn Law of 1815, which put a tax upon corn from abroad, had given place to another in 1828. By the new law, the tax grew less as corn became dearer; but still the effect was to keep corn from being brought into the country. The landlords and farmers were in favour of the tax, as it put a higher price on corn, and enabled the farmer to pay the landlord a higher rent.

7. **Cobden and Bright.**—Two men—Richard Cobden and John Bright, both remarkable as public speakers—formed the Anti-Corn-Law League, and



JOHN BRIGHT.

commenced a crusade against the tax. They were called "Free Traders," because they wanted trade to be free. They believed that food ought to be bought in the cheapest markets in the world; and that if this were done the country would be richer.

8. The Famine in Ireland.—In 1845 and 1846 the potato crop, from which the people of Ireland get a great part of their food, failed. The poor people sold everything they had to buy food. They lived on turnips and cabbages, or anything else they could get, and often many were without food for days. Fever broke out among them, and more than two hundred thousand persons died before help could be brought to them. After a time, kind-hearted people,

in Ireland, Great Britain, and America, were able to give them help; and their own priests worked day and night to assist the suffering people. Fortunately, the harvest of 1847 was good, and this put an end to "the hunger," as the people themselves called it; but Ireland felt its effects for a long time.

9. **Repeal of the Corn Law.**—The famine in Ireland, which lasted for two years, led Robert Peel, who was then Prime Minister, to see that it was wrong to hinder food from coming freely into the country. He resigned office, thinking it better that the men who had all along been on the side of Free Trade should bring in the measure. Lord John Russell, however, could not get a ministry together, and Peel had to come back to office. In 1846 he carried a motion in the House of Commons by which the duty on corn was entirely abolished at the end of three years, while in the interval the tax was lowered to four shillings per quarter; and in 1849 it fell to one shilling. The repeal of the Corn Law made many of Peel's friends turn against him and form themselves into a party, called "Protectionists." Lord Stanley, afterwards the Earl of Derby, was their leader.

10. **The Chartists.**—A body of men called Chartists began at this time (1839) to demand, as the right of every man, six things as "The People's Charter." The six points of the Charter were:—

- (1.) That every man should have a vote.
- (2.) That votes should be given by ballot. In this plan for secret voting the voter puts a X opposite the name of the candidate for whom he

wishes to vote, but does not sign his name or in any way show by whom the vote has been given. This secures the voter from the interference or influence of those who wish to obtain his vote.

(3.) That there should be a new Parliament every year. This would cause members to please their constituents to obtain re-election.

(4.) That members of Parliament should be paid for their services. This was to enable men who had to earn their living to become members of Parliament if elected.

(5.) That every man, whether he was the owner of property or not, should be held fit to be chosen as a member of Parliament.

(6.) That the country should be divided into equal districts, each of which should choose one member of Parliament, and so make every man's vote of as nearly an equal value as possible.

A band of Chartists, led by John Frost, who had once been a magistrate, raised a riot at Newport in Monmouthshire. In this riot some lives were lost, and Frost and two others were transported.

11. Penny Postage : 1839.—Before this time the postage paid for sending letters was very high. The charge on a letter from London to Edinburgh was one shilling and a penny. Rowland Hill proposed a plan by which letters might be sent to any part of the British Isles for a penny. The plan was adopted, and proved so successful that it has since been improved. We can now send a letter for a penny, and a post-card or a newspaper for a half-penny, to any part of the British Isles.

64. VICTORIA. (Part II.)

1. **First Afghan War : 1839-1842.**—Afghanistan lies on the north-west of India, with only a range of mountains between the two countries. The Russians have large possessions in Asia, and for a long time they have been adding to these, till their empire borders on the northern side of Afghanistan. The British have long feared that Russia would try to take possession of India if the chance ever occurred. We have therefore always aimed to keep her out of Afghanistan, and to be ourselves friends with the ruler of that country. Shah Shoojah, the ruler of Afghanistan, who was a friend of the British, was driven from his throne by Dost Mohammed. In 1839 a British army marched into Afghanistan, took Kandahar, Cabul (the capital), and other cities, and replaced Shah Shoojah. The British army then returned to India, leaving soldiers to guard some of the Afghan towns.

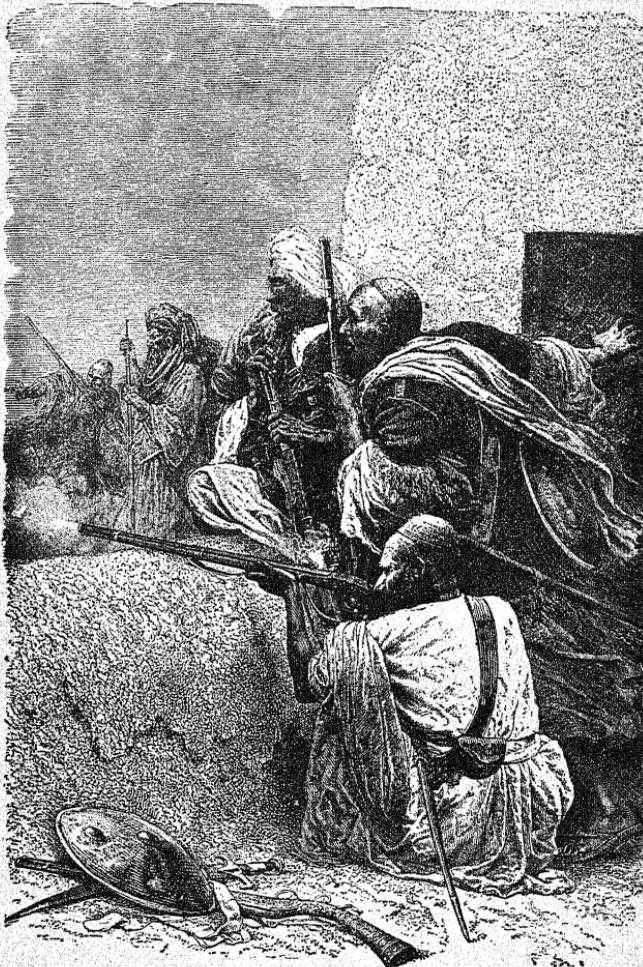
2. In 1841, Akbar Khan, the son of Dost Mohammed, surrounded the British in Cabul. There was a rising of the people in the city, and some of the British leaders were killed. A few weeks later Sir William Macnaghten, and several officers who visited Akbar to negotiate, were put to death by the Afghans. The British then left Cabul, Akbar promising to protect them on their way back to India.

3. Between Cabul and Jelalabad, at the head of the Kyber Pass, which connects Afghanistan with India, there is a distance of ninety miles. The British had to march over the steep hills covered

with snow. They had women and children with them to care for. Fierce Afghans posted on the rocks attacked the retreating troops and shot them down without mercy. The women and children were given up to Akbar Khan. He could keep them beside him in safety, but he could not restrain his followers, when beyond his reach, from attacking the British. The men bravely marched on, but it was to their death. A few days later one man, Dr. Bryden, wounded and half dead, riding a worn-out pony, entered Jelalabad. He was the only one left to tell the tale. Four thousand five hundred soldiers and twelve thousand camp-followers lay dead in the passes of those snow-covered mountains.

4. The Afghans then tried to take Jelalabad, but they were unable to do so. The British held out till help arrived, General Pollock having bravely fought his way through the Kyber Pass. Having relieved Jelalabad he then marched on to Cabul, and recovered those who had been left behind when the soldiers retreated. He then threw down the city walls and returned to India. In 1855 Dost Mohammed made a friendly alliance with the British.

5. War between Turkey and Egypt: 1839.—While these things were going on in Afghanistan, a war broke out between Turkey and Egypt. As this hindered British trade in the neighbourhood of the Black Sea, we were led to take part in it. The Egyptians could not be driven out of Syria until the town of Acre had been taken by the British fleet. Shortly after this the Turks, who claimed Egypt as



AFGHAN SOLDIERS FIGHTING.

part of their empire, agreed that Mehemet Ali and his heirs should be settled as rulers of that country.

6. **War with China : 1840.**—War took place with China on account of the opium trade. Opium is a drug that grows in India, and it is sent to China and other countries, where it is either smoked or swallowed in small pieces. The Chinese Government had passed a law forbidding opium to be brought into their country, because it was hurtful to those who used it. This law hindered British merchants from carrying on the opium trade. Many cargoes of opium which British traders tried to smuggle into China were destroyed, and several British subjects were thrown into prison. In 1840 a war was begun to compel the Chinese to alter the law. Hong-kong, an island east of the entrance to Canton river, was taken, and the British received the right to trade with Canton and four other towns—Amoy, Foochoo, Ningpo, and Shanghai—on the sea coast. Peace was restored in 1842. It was a disgraceful thing for us thus to force the sale of a hurtful drug like opium on the Chinese people.

7. **Union of the two Canadas : 1841.**—For some time the people of Canada had been demanding greater freedom in the management of their own affairs. There were many French people in Lower Canada, and they disliked being under British rule. The ministers at home, however, would not listen to the Canadians, who at last made up their minds to fight. But the fighting did not last long, and there was little loss of life. Another rising next year among the French of Lower Canada was as quickly put down. Parliament saw, however, that

something must be done to bring this state of things to an end, and an Act was passed in 1841 which made Upper and Lower Canada into one province.

8. **War in India : 1843.**—While the war was going on in Afghanistan, Sindh, which lies near the mouth of the river Indus, in the north-west of India, had been held by a British army. Its rulers, who were called Ameers, did not like this. The Ameer, determined to force the British to leave his country, surrounded the house in which the British Minister dwelt at Hyderabad. Major Outram, who had only one hundred men with him, held the place for a time, and then with great skill withdrew in safety. A few days after, the British, under Sir Charles James Napier, won the Battle of Meeanee. After another victory, at Dubba, Sindh was given up to Britain, and has ever since been part of British India.

9. **War in the Punjâb : 1839–1846.**—The country which lies farther up the Indus is called the Punjâb, which means “the five waters.” Its people are called Sikhs. One of their rulers, Runjeet Singh, had been a friend of the British; but when he died in 1839 a great fight for the throne began. An attack was made on a British force which lay at Moodkee in 1845. In this fight the Sikhs were beaten. They were, however, no mean foes; they rode splendid horses, and had been taught to handle their guns by officers from Europe. The British made an attack upon their camp at Feroze-shah, and took it after two days’ hard fighting. The Sikhs fled across the Sutlej, which is the farthest east of “the five rivers.” In 1846, the

winning of two battles by the British, at Aliwal and Sobraon, opened the way to Lahore, the capital of the Punjâb, where a treaty was made. Another Sikh War took place in 1849. The British won the battles of Chillianwalla and Goojerat, and the Punjâb was then also added to our Indian Empire.

10. **Income Tax : 1842.**—For several years the income of the Government had not been sufficient. To meet the expenditure Peel levied a tax of seven-pence out of every pound of income earned by all persons throughout the country having incomes above a certain amount. It gave him more money than he needed, but with the surplus he was able to lessen some taxes which were greatly hindering trade. There were many kinds of goods which could not be brought into the country without the payment of heavy taxes. The duty was lowered, and by this means many articles became cheaper, trade improved, and the wants of the people were better supplied. He did not, however, deal with the tax on corn till 1846.

11. **Daniel O'Connell and the Repeal of the Union.**—Daniel O'Connell, who in 1829 entered the House of Commons as member for County Clare, now advocated the repeal of the Union between Great Britain and Ireland. He held great meetings in Ireland, and the people collected money at the doors of Roman Catholic chapels to enable him to carry on the movement. In 1843 things came to a head. Soldiers had to keep order at some of the meetings. These meetings were often so large as to endanger public safety. O'Connell and others were tried for causing disorder, and ordered to be kept in prison

for two years. They were soon, however, set free. O'Connell died at Genoa in 1847.

12. Disruption of the Church of Scotland : 1843.— During the reign of Queen Anne, a law called the Patronage Act was passed for Scotland. In every parish, one man, called the patron, had the right of saying who was to be the minister; and the Church courts were bound to put him in, even against the wishes of the people. The popular party in the Church denied the right of the patron to do more than withhold the stipend. They refused to settle ministers at the bidding of the civil courts. At last, in consequence of a decision in the House of Lords against the popular party, the Church of Scotland was broken in two. In 1843 a great many people left the Church of Scotland and formed the Free Church of Scotland—that is, free from connection with the State. This was called the Disruption.

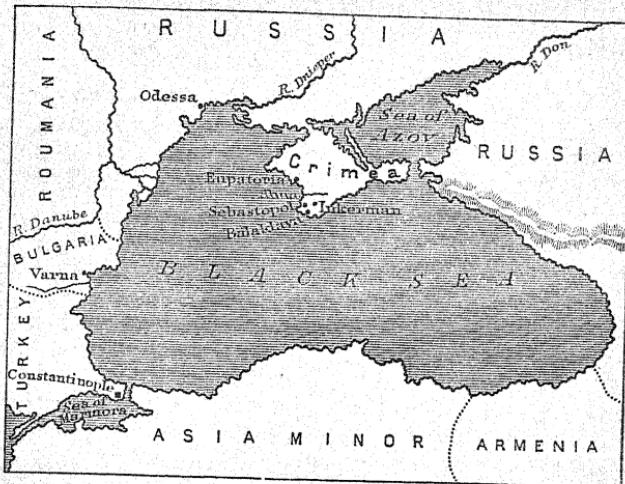
13. Death of Sir Robert Peel.— When Peel took in hand to deal with the Corn Law, many of his old friends deserted him. They joined the Whigs in a vote against him on the very day that his Corn Bill passed the House of Lords. Lord John Russell then became Prime Minister. As long as Sir Robert Peel lived, he assisted Lord Russell to set trade free. He was thrown from his horse and killed in 1850. A monument was erected to Sir Robert in Westminster Abbey. On it are inscribed the closing words of the speech he made when he resigned the office of Prime Minister. They refer to the part he took in repealing the Corn Law: "It may

be that I shall leave a name sometimes remembered with expressions of goodwill in the abodes of those whose lot it is to labour and to earn their daily bread by the sweat of their brow, when they shall recruit their exhausted strength with abundant and untaxed food, the sweeter because it is no longer leavened with a sense of injustice."

14. Great Exhibition of 1851.—Prince Albert, the Queen's husband, saw that it would be a benefit to bring together specimens of the best kinds of work and material from all parts of the world, so that they could be seen side by side with those of our own country. For this purpose the "Crystal Palace," a building of glass and iron, was erected in Hyde Park, London, in which to hold the so-called "World's Fair."

15. Death of Wellington.—The Duke of Wellington died in 1852, at the age of eighty-three. He was one of the greatest generals that ever lived. The people were proud of him, and called him the "Iron Duke,"—the "Hero of a hundred fights." He was buried in St. Paul's Cathedral, London, beside Lord Nelson and other great national heroes.

16. Change of Ministers.—In 1852 Lord Russell resigned, and the Earl of Derby then formed a Conservative Ministry, with Benjamin Disraeli as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Derby resigned in the following year, and what is called a Coalition Ministry was formed, in which there were men of both parties. Lord Aberdeen was Prime Minister, and the Ministry also included Lord Palmerston, Lord John Russell, and William Ewart Gladstone.



65. VICTORIA. (Part III.)

1. **Crimean War : 1854-1856.**—War arose between Russia and Turkey from a quarrel about the treatment of pilgrims to the Holy Places in Jerusalem. Nicholas, Emperor of Russia, who was head of the Greek Church, marched an army into Turkey. Other questions also had to be settled between the two countries. The Turks were foolish, and the Russians headstrong. Great Britain and France took the side of Turkey. They were afraid that if Turkey was defeated, Russia would become too strong in the south of Europe. The allied troops were landed at Varna, a sea-port of Bulgaria; but they were not needed there, as the Turks were able to defend themselves on the Danube. It was therefore resolved to break Russia's power in the Black Sea; and

the fleets were sent there, and began by attacking Odessa, a Russian port on the Black Sea. Admiral Sir Charles John Napier, with another fleet, sailed to the Baltic Sea. He tried to take Kronstadt, in the Gulf of Finland, the fortress which guards St. Petersburg, but had to give up the attempt.

2. Battle of the Alma: 1854.—It was in the Crimea, a small peninsula stretching out into the Black Sea, that the war lasted longest and was most keenly carried on. A British and French army of 51,000 men, led by Lord Raglan and Marshal St. Arnaud, landed at Eupatoria, on the west side of the Crimea, in September 1854. In marching southward to Sebastopol, a stronghold in the Crimea, they came upon a Russian army nearly as large as their own. It was strongly placed on a rising ground beyond the river Alma, and they had to cross right in the face of it. In three hours, however, the British and French were on the other side, and had climbed the heights, driving the Russians before them towards Sebastopol. This was the famous Battle of the Alma. It was fought on the 20th of September, six days after the landing of the allied armies.

3. Before Sebastopol.—When the Russians were beaten on the heights of Alma, they fell back on their great stronghold Sebastopol. If Lord Raglan had had his own way, the Allies, as the British and French were called, would have followed the Russians into the city. The French leader, who was himself very ill, considered his men too worn out to do this, and the two armies encamped to the south of the city. Their ships and stores were lying



BALAKLAVA.

behind them at Balaklava, a sea-port of the Crimea, about six miles farther south. It took them a whole month to get ready to storm Sebastopol. In that time the Russians had made it so strong that they were able for a time to hold out against the allied armies.

4. **Battle of Balaklava : 1854.**—On the 25th of October a battle was fought at Balaklava, in which both sides lost many men. The Turks, who were

there too, failed to stand their ground, and the Russian horsemen had nearly broken in upon the British lines, when they were brought to a stand by Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde, at the head of the 93rd Highlanders. The usual way of meeting a charge of cavalry is to form a square, so that the men may face outwards on every side, and so prevent the horsemen from getting behind to cut them down. Sir Colin, knowing that he could trust his men to stand firm, did not form them into a square, but kept them in two long lines, the one behind the other—"a thin red streak, topped with a line of steel." By the fire from their rifles alone they drove back the enemy. The heavy British horse—the Scots Greys, Enniskillens, and Dragoon Guards—were standing ready, and they at once dashed among the Russian horsemen with such force that in five minutes they scattered a host three times their own number.

5. Charge of the Light Brigade: 1854.—Another great deed, known as the "Charge of the Light Brigade," was done on the same day. After the defeat of the Russian horsemen, their whole army was drawn up behind a guard of thirty guns, about a mile and a half from the Allies. By some blunder, the Light Brigade received an order to charge the whole Russian army! Right down the slope they rode in the face of the guns. On they went, fired at from both sides as well as in front. They reached the battery, cut down many of the gunners, and then "all that was left of them"



"SABRING THE GUNNERS THERE."

rode back. Of 670 men who went out, only 190 returned.

6. This famous charge produced a great effect on the enemy, by showing what British troops would dare to do. "It is magnificent, but it is not war," said a French general.

"When can their glory fade?
Oh! the wild charge they made!
All the world wondered.
Honour the charge they made!
Honour the Light Brigade,
Noble Six Hundred!"

7. Battle of Inkermann : 1854.—On the morning

of the 5th of November, another battle was fought at Inkermann, a little to the east of Sebastopol. Hidden by the mist of a winter morning, from 50,000 to 60,000 Russians climbed the hill on the top of which was a British force of not more than 8,000 men. The British were scattered here and there along the hill-side in small bodies, little dreaming that the enemy was close upon them. They were short of powder, too, which made things worse. There was no time to unite, and still less to form any plan of defence. Each party had to do what it could to defend itself. Yet the British held their own for some hours, until the French came to their help. Inkermann was called the "Soldiers' Victory," because it was more by the bravery of the men than by the plans of their leaders that the enemy was defeated.

8. **Sufferings of the Soldiers.**—Winter was now coming on, and it was a foe harder to fight than even the Russians had been. Although there were ships laden with food and clothes at Balaklava, not more than six miles off, the men were dying of cold and hunger. The rain had made the roads so bad that nothing could be dragged over them. The tents of the soldiers were blown away, and more men died of cold and hunger and sickness than were killed in battle. The news of this roused great anger at home. The Ministers were displaced. Lord Palmerston was put at the head of a new Government. Miss Nightingale and forty-two nurses went out to care for the sick; and a railway was laid down from the ships to the camp. Miss Night-



LORD PALMERSTON.

ingale visited hospital and camp, and, like an angel of mercy, everywhere ministered to the wounded and the dying. One sick soldier said that owing to the large numbers in the hospital, all could not receive her care. "Yet," said he, "we could kiss her shadow as it fell, and lay our heads on our pillows content." She died in 1910.

9. **Fall of Sebastopol: 1855.**—Nicholas, the Czar or Emperor of Russia, died on the 2nd of March 1855; but the war went on all the same under his son Alexander. During the war, Sardinia, having joined the Anglo-French Alliance, helped to win a great battle on the banks of the Tchernaya, a river in the



FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE NURSING SICK SOLDIERS IN THE CRIMEA.

Crimea.—The British and French leaders were changed more than once. Marshal St. Arnaud died after the Battle of the Alma. He was succeeded by Canrobert, who in turn gave place to Pelissier. Lord Raglan died of cholera in June 1855, and was succeeded by General Simpson, who in turn gave place to Sir William Codrington.

10. Strong as it was, Sebastopol was taken at last. From April to September 1855, shot and shell were poured upon it. On the 8th of September, after the French had taken the Malakoff tower and the British had seized the Redan, parts of the fortifications of Sebastopol, the Russians, finding they could not hope to hold out much longer, left the southern

side of the city. They continued to hold the northern side across the harbour till peace was made. The ships of the Russians were sunk in the harbour, and their great stronghold was left a heap of ruins.

11. **Treaty of Paris :** 1856.—The war was in the meantime carried on in other places. British ships were in the Baltic, and Sir William Williams held Kars, a town of Armenia near the Caucasus mountains, for a long time against great odds. Russia was thus crippled at all points, and at last sought for peace. The war was brought to an end by the Treaty of Paris, in March 1856, and Turkey was left at rest for some years. Fifty million pounds were added to our National Debt, and Britain lost more than twenty thousand lives.

66. VICTORIA. (Part IV.)

1. **Indian Mutiny : 1857.**—Our Indian Empire had now grown very large, as native states had been added from time to time. The army by which the British hold India is made up of British soldiers and sepoys. Sepoys are native soldiers in the British army. The Hindus, or people of India, are divided into classes, called castes. Each caste has its own rules of life, and those who disobey them lose caste; which means that their neighbours will not speak to them, or have anything to do with them. There are some things which they must not eat, or even

touch. One of these is cow's flesh ; and out of this great troubles arose.

2. While Lord Canning was Governor-General, some of the sepoys declared that the cartridges, or little packets of powder and bullets with which they loaded their rifles, were greased with cow's fat. Those who believed this would not use them, for fear of losing caste ; and when the story spread others did the same. Some of the sepoys were punished for refusing. Their comrades set them free, and then the sepoys in a body rose in rebellion.

3. The Indian Mutiny, as it was called, began at Meerut, near Delhi, on the 10th of March 1857. After killing some Europeans and burning their houses, the rebels set out for Delhi (formerly the capital of the Mogul Empire). Before the clerks at the telegraph office were killed they had been able to send the news to Lahore. Delhi, which was full of sepoys, was besieged by about 3,000 Europeans from June till September, when it was taken by Sir John Lawrence.

4. Massacre of Cawnpore : 1857.—When the Mutiny broke out, there were about a thousand British men, women, and children in Cawnpore, a town on the Ganges. These took refuge in a hospital near the city. Here they were attacked by a large number of sepoys under Nana Sahib. They held out for three weeks, and then, trusting to the promise of the sepoy leader, they left their place of refuge. The British embarked in boats, intending to float down the Ganges to Allahabad, a strong fortress at the junction of the Jumna and the Ganges ; but no



SIR CHARLES NAPIER

1782-1853

SOLDIER

Indian general. Annexed Sindh.



SIR JOHN LAWRENCE

1811-1879

INDIAN CIVIL SERVANT

Helped to put down the Indian Mutiny.
Viceroy of India, 1863-68.



SIR HENRY HAVELOCK

1795-1857

SOLDIER

Relieved and defended Lucknow during
the Indian Mutiny.



SIR JAMES OUTRAM

1803-1863

SOLDIER

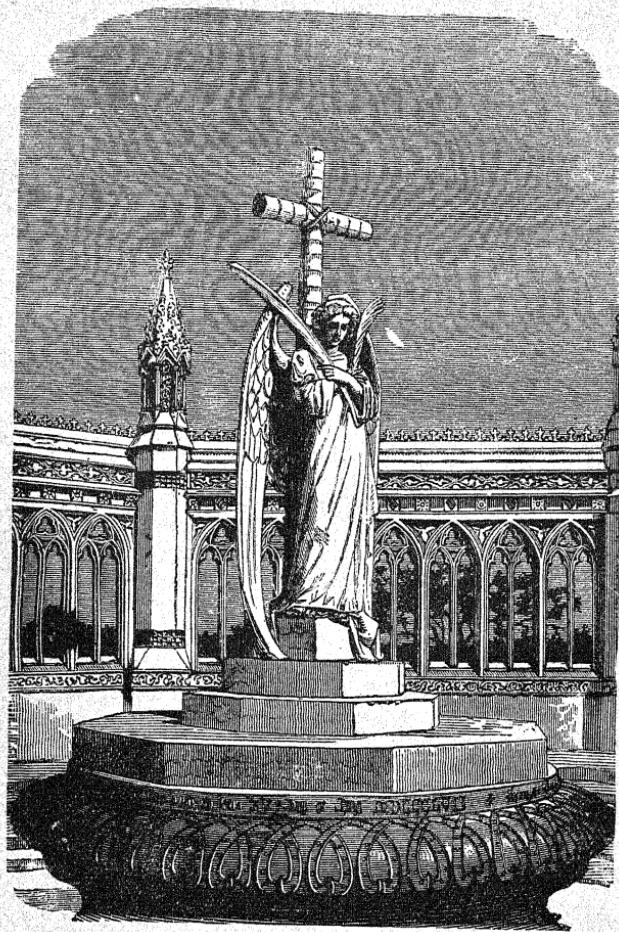
Helped to put down the Indian Mutiny.

GREAT SOLDIERS, &c

sooner were they on board than the sepoys shot down all the men but four, and made prisoners of about two hundred women and children. A few days afterwards the helpless captives were cruelly murdered by Nana Sahib's orders, and their bodies were thrown into a well near the hospital.

5. **Relief of Lucknow : 1857.**—The sepoys had also revolted at Lucknow and surrounded the Residency, an enclosed house and grounds in which Sir Henry Lawrence and the Europeans had taken refuge. Colonel Havelock, who had arrived at Cawnpore too late to save the victims of Nana Sahib's cruelty, pushed on to Lucknow with 2,800 men, to relieve his fellow-countrymen there. Sir James Outram, his superior officer, joined him on the way, but would not take the command of the little army from him. "To you," he said to Havelock, "shall be left the glory of relieving Lucknow, for which you have already struggled so much." Step by step the British fought their way through bands of rebels gathered to oppose them, and at last entered Lucknow in triumph.

6. Havelock and Outram soon found that the women and children could not be removed in the face of the enemy, who again closed around the city. Two months later Sir Colin Campbell, afterwards Lord Clyde, arrived with a larger army, and took all to a place of safety. Worn out with the hard work he had done, the brave Havelock died shortly afterwards. Delhi had already been retaken, and the Mutiny came to an end with the fall of Bareilly in 1858.



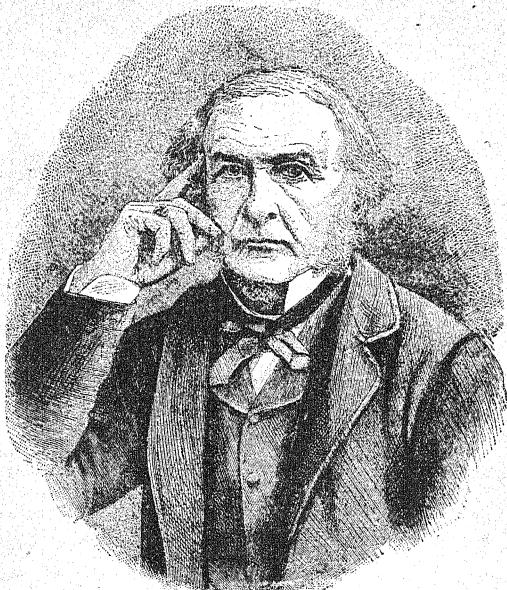
THE MEMORIAL AT CAWNPORE.

7. End of the East India Company: 1858.—The Mutiny caused a change to be made in the government of India. It was taken out of the hands of

the East India Company, and a Viceroy was placed over the country to rule in the name of Queen Victoria. A further change was made when, in 1876, the Queen was declared to be "Empress of India."

8. **Change of Ministry.**—Before the Mutiny was put down in India changes took place at home. A plot had been formed in England to kill the French Emperor. Lord Palmerston brought in a Bill to make the punishment for such crimes much heavier than it was. The Bill did not pass, and he withdrew from office. Lord Derby became Prime Minister. During the time he was in power an Act was passed which gave Jews the right to become members of Parliament. Lord Palmerston again returned to power when Lord Derby resigned in 1859.

9. **Chinese Wars : 1856-1860.**—There had been no war with China since 1842, but about the end of 1856 the Chinese seized a ship which carried the British flag. A war was begun to punish them for this, and Canton was taken in the following year. In 1858 peace was restored, and Europeans were allowed to go all over China. About the same time Japan, which had hitherto been closed to foreigners, was thrown open for trade. A third war took place with China in 1860, when the British and the French marched to Pekin and captured the Summer Palace of the Emperor. They were about to bombard the city, when the Chinese yielded. Koo-loon, a district opposite Canton, was given over to the British.



W. E. GLADSTONE.

10. **Second Reform Act:** 1867.—Lord Palmerston died in October 1865, in his eighty-first year. Earl Russell became Prime Minister, with Mr. Gladstone as leader of the House of Commons. A new Reform Bill was brought in the next year; but as the House of Commons would not pass it, Earl Russell resigned, and Lord Derby became Prime Minister for the third time, with Mr. Disraeli as leader of the House. Disraeli brought in a Reform Bill, which was passed in 1867.

11. The chief feature of this Act was household suffrage. It gave a vote for members of Parliament



BENJAMIN DISRAELI, EARL OF BEACONSFIELD.

ment to every householder who lived in a borough, and to lodgers who paid a rent of £10 a year. In counties, votes were given to householders who paid a rent of £12 in England, and £14 in Scotland. In Ireland a vote was given to householders who paid a rent of not less than £4. Seven new members were given to Scotland, making sixty in all. In 1868 Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister; but finding that the elections for a new Parliament were going against him, he resigned, and Mr. Gladstone took his place.

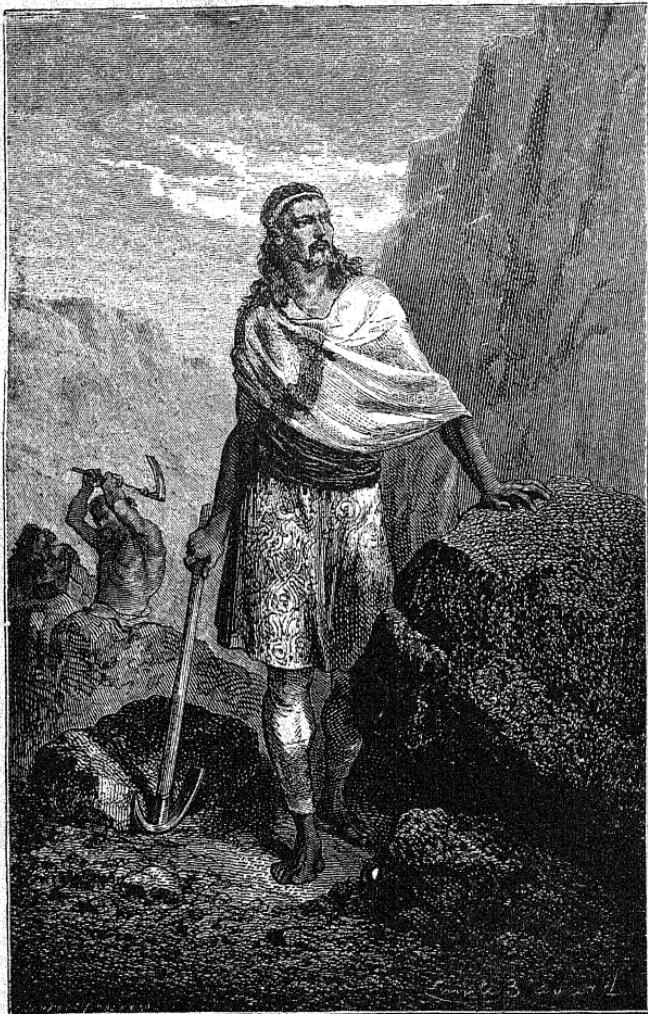
12. **Dominion of Canada : 1867.**—We have already seen that Upper and Lower Canada were made into one province in 1841. Another and greater change took place in 1867. In that year all the provinces

in North America except Newfoundland were formed into one group, called the Dominion of Canada. Each province kept its own Assembly for carrying on its own affairs, but a united Parliament for the whole Dominion was established. This Parliament meets in Ottawa, the capital, and there the Governor-General resides. In 1885 there was a rebellion of Indians and half-breeds—children of Indians and whites—in the North-West. The rising was put down, and the leader, Louis Riel, was hanged.

13. Abyssinian War: 1868.—Theodore, King of Abyssinia, a country in the east of Africa, near the Red Sea, had put some British people into prison, and refused to give them up. In 1868 an army was sent from India to set them free. The rock fortress of Magdala was taken by storm. When the soldiers entered it they found that the King had shot himself. The leader of the army, Sir Robert Napier, was made Lord Napier of Magdala.

14. Ashantee War: 1874.—Six years later we quarrelled with another African King. The Ashantees, who live near the West Coast, had become very troublesome to British traders and others in their neighbourhood. Sir Garnet Wolseley was sent with a small army to punish them. He took and burned Coomassie, their chief town; after which their King was glad to make peace.

15. New Laws for Ireland.—The majority of the Irish were Roman Catholics, and they objected to the Protestant Church being called the National Church. The new Parliament which met in the



KING THEODORE OF ABYSSINIA.

end of 1868 passed an Act in 1869 to disestablish the Irish Church. This placed Protestants and

Roman Catholics in Ireland on an equal footing. An Irish Land Act followed in 1870, and another in 1881. These Land Acts did much to better the position of Irish tenants, who could not now be turned out of their holdings without receiving payment for any improvements they had made.

16. **New Laws for England and Scotland.**—The same Parliament also passed two Education Acts—one for England in 1870, and another for Scotland in 1872. These Acts said that School Boards should be formed to provide schools for all the children in the land, and that every child above a certain age must attend school. In 1872 the Ballot Act was passed. It allows votes to be given secretly at the election of members of Parliament and Town Councils.

17. A new Parliament met in 1874, which was as unfriendly to Mr. Gladstone as the former had been to Mr. Disraeli. They had therefore to change places, and Mr. Disraeli became Prime Minister a second time.

67. VICTORIA. (Part V.)

1. **War between Russia and Turkey: 1877.**—In a war between Russia and Turkey the Turks were defeated. They had so badly treated Bulgaria, a subject province, that no other nation came to their help; but Britain sent her fleet to Constantinople, and Indian soldiers were brought to Malta, to prevent Russia from entering the Turkish capital. When the fighting was nearly over, Britain undertook to help the Turks against any attack in Asia,

if they would govern better at home. The island of Cyprus was given over to the British, that they might have a footing near at hand. Peace was made at Berlin in 1878, and signed by all the Powers of Europe. Turkey had to give up some of her finest provinces to be governed by the people themselves.

2. **Second Afghan War: 1878.**—The people of Afghanistan, never very warm in their friendship for Great Britain, seemed about this time to be leaning more towards the Russians. This alarmed the British rulers of India. Shere Ali, the Ameer, having refused to receive a British embassy, war was declared, and a British army took Kandahar and Cabul. Shere Ali died shortly afterwards. His son, Yakoob Khan, submitted to the British, and a treaty was made.

3. After this the British envoy, Sir Louis Cavagnari, who had gone to see that the treaty was carried out, was murdered by the Afghans. Fighting began again. General Roberts immediately marched on Cabul, and defeating the Afghans, he entered the city, and ordered the murderers of the British envoy to be hanged. Yakoob Khan was sent as a prisoner to India. While Roberts was at Cabul the Afghans almost destroyed a small British army and then besieged Kandahar. Roberts at once set out with all the forces at his command. In twenty days the British troops marched three hundred and fifty miles, relieved Kandahar, and won the Battle of Mazra.

4. At the election of a new Parliament Mr. Disraeli, now Lord Beaconsfield, had once more to give

place to Mr. Gladstone, who in 1880 became Prime Minister for the second time. The Afghan War was brought to an end in 1881, and Lord Beaconsfield died the same year.

5. **Zulu War: 1878.**—Cetewayo, the King of the Zulus in South Africa, had gathered a large army near the borders of the British colony of Natal. As he refused to disarm his soldiers, British troops were sent against them. At first our soldiers, under Lord Chelmsford, were severely beaten. Eighty British soldiers bravely held a place called Rorke's Drift against four thousand Zulus, and saved Natal from invasion. In the end the British defeated the Zulus at Ulundi. Cetewayo was taken prisoner and sent to Cape Town. After a visit to England, the Zulu King was restored to his throne in 1883. Another chief defeated him in 1884, and Cetewayo died the same year. Since then Zulu Land has been added to the British Empire. The Prince Imperial of France, the only son of the Emperor Napoleon the Third, who was an exile in England, joined the British troops in the Zulu War, and soon afterwards was slain.

6. **Transvaal War: 1880.**—When Cape Colony became a British possession, the Boers or Dutch settlers founded other colonies farther north, in order to be out of the reach of British rule. They wanted freedom for themselves and power to make the natives slaves. At last they crossed the Vaal, a large tributary of the Orange river, and founded the Transvaal or South African Republic, which was added to the British Empire in 1877.

In 1880 the Boers rose in revolt, and defeated the British under General Colley at Laing's Neck, Ingogo, and Majuba Hill, in the Transvaal. In the last battle Colley and many British officers were slain. After this the Boers were allowed the right of self-government, but under British control.

7. **War in Egypt: 1882-1885.**—Recently the affairs of Egypt have given Great Britain a good deal of trouble. As the Suez Canal—which is now the highway between England and India—is in Egypt, it is necessary that that country should be friendly with Great Britain. A military revolt under Arabi Pasha overthrew the Egyptian Government in 1882. The British sent a fleet under Admiral Seymour, which destroyed the forts at Alexandria, a sea-port of Lower Egypt. General Wolseley gained a great victory at Tel-el-Kebir, and then put the Khedive, or ruler of Egypt, on his throne again. Arabi was sent a prisoner to Ceylon.

8. Then an Arab revolt, headed by a chief who called himself the Mahdi or Messiah, broke out in the Soudan, a land to the south of Egypt under Egyptian rule. This led to more fighting, in order to defend Suakim on the coast of the Red Sea, and relieve Tokar, which was held by Egyptian troops. The Arabs, led by Osman Digna, one of the Arab leaders next in rank to the Mahdi, fought bravely with spears and swords; but the British army, under General Graham, gained the battles of Teb and Tamasi.

9. **General Gordon.**—The heroic General Gordon—popularly called “Chinese Gordon” on account of



GENERAL GORDON.

service in China—who had at one time been Governor of Khartoum, and knew the ways of the people, consented to go to the Soudan to treat with the rebel tribes and relieve the Egyptian garrisons in the Soudan, a region of Africa south of the Sahara. He went almost alone to Khartoum, which lies at the junction of the White Nile and the Blue Nile, fifteen hundred miles above its mouth. Gordon failed in his peaceful mission, and had to defend himself against the followers of the Mahdi, who besieged the town.

10. The British Government sent a force of 10,000 men, under Lord Wolseley, to relieve Gordon. In

whale-boats, manned by Canadian boat-men, the British made their way to Korti. As the river makes a great bend from this point, a part of the army under General Stewart then marched across the Bayuda Desert, and defeated the Arabs at Abu-Klea. Another battle was won near Metammeh, in which Stewart was mortally wounded and Colonel Burnaby killed. The way to the Nile was now clear; but when General Wilson steamed up the river to Khartoum, he found that the place had been taken by the Arabs, and that Gordon had been killed two days before (January 28, 1885).

11. As Osman Digna still threatened Suakin, General Graham returned to the coast of the Red Sea with a large force. His army was joined by a body of volunteers from New South Wales—the first occasion of Australian troops sharing in the defence of the Empire. Osman Digna was driven off, and his force was dispersed. The British forces soon afterwards withdrew to Egypt proper, where some still remain.

68. VICTORIA. (Part VI.)

1. **Troubles in Ireland.**—The Union of the Parliaments of Great Britain and Ireland in 1801 did not make the Irish contented with British rule. As we have seen, Daniel O'Connell tried to obtain a repeal of the Union in 1843, but failed in his attempt. In 1865 a plot was discovered which had the same end in view. Those who were parties to it were

called Fenians. To prevent them from doing harm the Government set aside the Habeas Corpus Act, so that they might put the leaders of the plot in prison, without trial, till the danger was past. Many of the leading Fenians, including Stephens, the "Head Centre" or chief, and O'Donovan Rossa, were banished.

2. Home Rule.—The disestablishing of the Irish Church and the passing of the Land Acts, in 1869 and 1870, did not satisfy the Irish people. They demanded "Home Rule,"—that is to say, they asked for a Parliament of their own in Dublin, to manage the affairs of Ireland. Bad harvests in 1878 and 1879 gave rise to much ill-feeling among the farmers, and Charles Parnell became the Home Rule leader.

3. Land League.—Parnell asked the House of Commons to make great changes in the land laws. With Michael Davitt, he formed the Land League, by means of which the farmers were to keep their lands, but not to pay full rent for them. Landlords and their agents were defied. The cattle and goods of those who obeyed the law and disobeyed the League were destroyed. Shop-keepers were forbidden to supply with food and clothing those who opposed the Land League. This was called "boycotting," from a Captain Boycott who was one of the first to be so treated. The law was openly broken, and it seemed as if the country was drifting towards civil war.

4. New Land Act: 1881.—In these circumstances, Parliament passed an Act to make the law stronger, and to enable it to overtake and punish the crime which had become so common. A new Land Law

was also passed, which gave the farmers a good deal more than the Act of 1870 had done. A Land Court was set up to fix a fair rent to be paid by farmers, and fixity of tenure and free sale were granted. Fixity of tenure means that a tenant cannot be put out of his farm unless for not paying the rent; and free sale means that when any one wants to leave his farm, he can sell the goodwill of it to any one who will buy it, and the landlord must let it to that person at the rent already fixed. Yet Ireland was not satisfied; and the Land League had to be put down by force of law. Parnell and other leaders were imprisoned for a time.

5. **Phoenix Park Murders : 1882.**—In 1882 a dreadful crime was committed in the Phoenix Park, near Dublin. Lord Frederick Cavendish, the Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Mr. Burke, the Under Secretary, were murdered in open day, on the path which runs through the middle of the park. The murderers belonged to a set of men who had made up their minds that the people of Ireland and Great Britain should never be friends if they could help it. The plot was made known by James Carey, a member of the Dublin Town Council, who had been one of the gang. The murderers were tried and hanged. An Act then passed for the prevention of crimes was fearlessly carried out by Earl Spencer; and during his time, for two years, things became very much better.

6. **Dynamite.**—The Irish in America sent thousands of pounds to the funds of the League, and to pay the Irish members of Parliament while in

London; but not content with this, a band of wicked men tried to frighten the people of London by blowing up buildings with dynamite, a powerful explosive substance. Such was their bitter feeling against England that they did not care whether those whom they killed had done them any harm or not. In 1884 they blew to pieces a part of the building in Scotland Yard, the head-quarters of the London police. In the beginning of 1885, three explosions took place almost at the same time—in the House of Commons, in Westminster Hall, and in the Tower of London. For taking part in these fearful crimes, two men were sent to prison for life, and others were imprisoned for shorter periods.

7. **Third Burmese War**: 1885.—Theebaw, the King of Burma, dealt so harshly with British subjects who lived in his country, that an army was sent against him. He was dethroned, and Burma was annexed to our Indian Empire, January 1st, 1886.

8. **A Scottish Secretary**: 1885.—About this time a change was made in the management of Scottish business by the Government. Formerly it was done by the Home Secretary, who also had charge of English business. He was almost always an Englishman, who knew very little about the wants of the Scottish people, and who had more work than he could do. The result was that Scottish business did not receive proper attention, and therefore an Act was passed creating a Scottish Department, with a Secretary of State at its head. The Duke of Richmond and Gordon was the first Secretary for Scotland.



WILLIAM WORDSWORTH

1770-1850

POET (Laureate)

He wrote *The Excursion*, *Lucy Gray*,
We are Seven, etc.



LORD MACAULAY

1800-1859

HISTORIAN AND POET

He wrote *A History of England*, *The Lays of Ancient Rome*, etc.



WILLIAM M. THACKERAY

1811-1863

NOVELIST

He wrote *Vanity Fair*, *Pendennis*, *The Four Georges*, etc.



CHARLES DICKENS

1812-1870

NOVELIST

He wrote *The Pickwick Papers*, *David Copperfield*, etc.

GREAT AUTHORS



THOMAS CARLYLE
1795-1881
MORALIST AND HISTORIAN
He wrote *Sartor Resartus*, *The French Revolution*, a History, etc.



JOHN RUSKIN
1819-1900
ART CRITIC
He wrote *Modern Painters*, *The Seven Lamps of Architecture*, etc.



ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON
1809-1892
POET (Laureate)
He wrote *The Queen of the May*, *Dora*, *The Charge of the Light Brigade*, etc.



ROBERT BROWNING
1812-1889
POET
He wrote *How they Brought the Good News from Ghent*, *The Pied Piper of Hamelin*, etc.

G R E A T A U T H O R S

9. **Scottish Crofters : 1886.**—The crofters or occupiers of small bits of land in the Highlands and Islands of Scotland demanded a change in the land laws under which they were tenants. The success of the Irish caused the Scottish crofters to try some of the same methods that the sister country had found successful. They did not kill the landlords, but they stopped the messengers of the law from serving notices on those who had not paid their rents; and some of them took possession of land which they said had been taken from them years before. A number of persons were sent to inquire into their complaints; and an Act was passed which made many of the changes asked for by the crofters.

10. **Reform Act : 1884.**—The Reform Act of 1867 gave the right to vote for members of Parliament to every householder in towns or boroughs, and in country districts to those householders who paid not less than a certain rent. Mr. Gladstone now proposed an Act, which was passed, that placed country or county householders, as they are called, on the same footing as householders in towns.

11. **Redistribution Act : 1885.**—The next change was to divide the country into districts, each of which should choose one member. The Act took members from small towns, and gave them to those towns and counties in which the new electors had received the right to a vote. Twelve additional members were given to Scotland, and two members were taken away from Ireland and given to England. The number of members to be returned to the House of Commons was raised from 658 to 670.

Of these England and Wales return 495, Scotland 72, and Ireland 103.

12. **Gladstone and Salisbury.**—Soon after the passing of these Acts Mr. Gladstone was defeated in the House of Commons, and Lord Salisbury became Prime Minister. The Conservatives had not a majority, and a new election took place near the end of 1885. Early in the new Parliament Lord Salisbury was defeated, and Mr. Gladstone became Prime Minister for the third time. Unable to carry his Irish Home Rule and Land Purchase Bills, Mr. Gladstone dissolved Parliament. Another election took place in July 1886. Mr. Gladstone failed to gain a majority, and Lord Salisbury again came into power.

13. **Queen Victoria's Jubilee: 1887.**—Queen Victoria completed the fiftieth year of her reign on the 21st of June 1887. Her Jubilee was celebrated with great rejoicings, not only at home, but in every part of the British Empire. The Jubilee was commemorated in permanent forms of endless variety. Two of the projects assumed national proportions—the Imperial Institute, for which half a million sterling was subscribed; and the Women's Jubilee Offering, the bulk of which the Queen applied to the establishment of institutions for nurses of the sick poor.

69. VICTORIA. (Part VII.)

1. **Local Government: 1888.**—Under this Act the administrative and financial business of the County Justices in England and Wales was transferred to a County Council in each shire, elected by the rate-payers to the extent of three-fourths of its members. The justices retained their judicial functions. The management of the police was entrusted to a joint-committee of the County Council and the Justices. The Poor Law Guardians were left undisturbed. The Councils had assigned to them a share of the probate duties, in lieu of the grants formerly made in aid of local rates.

2. In the following year County Councils were established in Scotland. They were made wholly elective; and to them were transferred the powers and duties of the Commissioners of Supply, and of the County Road Trustees, and the administrative powers of the justices. The police was entrusted to a joint-committee of the County Council and the Commissioners of Supply. Scotland's share of the probate duties was applied in providing free elementary education.

3. **Rupture of the Irish Party.**—On the eve of the opening of the autumn session of Parliament in 1890, the discovery of certain discreditable facts regarding the private life of Mr. Parnell led to the rupture of the Irish party. Mr. Gladstone and his colleagues declined to continue their dealings with him. After a bitter controversy, the majority of the Irish members deposed Mr. Parnell from the

leadership, and elected Mr. Justin McCarthy in his place. Mr. Parnell died in 1891.

4. **Assisted Education Act: 1891.**—This was the chief measure passed in the session of 1891. It applied the Chancellor of the Exchequer's surplus to paying a capitation grant of 10s. on the average attendance in all grant-aided schools. Education either became wholly free, or the fee was reduced by the amount of the grant. Equivalent sums were allotted to Scotland and to Ireland. As Scotland already enjoyed free elementary education, the grant was applied to other local purposes, including university and secondary education. An Elementary Education Act for Ireland was passed in 1892, after the Government had yielded to the demand of the Irish members that free education should be granted in the schools of the Christian Brothers.

5. **Home Rule for Ireland.**—The Parliament elected in 1886 was dissolved in 1892, having lasted the unusually long term of nearly six years. Irish Home Rule was again the test question at the general election. The new House of Commons consisted of 274 Liberals, 81 Irish Nationalists, 269 Conservatives, and 46 Liberal Unionists. The two former parties, who were in favour of Home Rule, had thus a majority of 40; and when Parliament met, the Government was defeated on an amendment to the address. Lord Salisbury resigned, and Mr. Gladstone then became Prime Minister for the fourth time, in the eighty-third year of his age. A new Home Rule Bill was at once introduced, and

was passed by the House of Commons in 1893, but it was rejected by the Lords.

6. **Completion of Local Government : 1893.**—County Councils had been established in 1888, and now an Act was passed for the establishment of Parish Councils in England and Wales. In the following year a Parish Councils Act for Scotland was passed.

7. **Rosebery and Salisbury.**—Mr. Gladstone's long and distinguished parliamentary career, which began immediately after the passing of the Reform Bill of 1832, was now about to close. The increasing infirmities of old age led him to resign the premiership in March, and Lord Rosebery became his successor as Prime Minister and leader of the Liberal party. But this ministry was of very short duration. In June it was defeated in the Commons on a question relating to the supply of small-arms ammunition. Lord Salisbury then became Premier. A general election took place in July, in which the Conservatives and Liberal Unionists had the large majority of 152.

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70. VICTORIA. (Part VIII.)

1. **Britain and the United States : 1895.**—The Government of the United States, as the chief power in the Western Hemisphere, decided on intervening in a long-standing quarrel between Great Britain and Venezuela, regarding the frontier of British Guiana, on the ground that "it is in the interests of the United States to prevent the acqui-

sition of fresh territory in the New World by any European power." A special commission was appointed by the United States Government to examine the claims of Great Britain and Venezuela respectively.

2. The Jameson Raid: 1896.—During the last days of 1895 and the first of 1896, great excitement was caused at home and abroad by the news that Dr. Jameson, of the British South Africa Chartered Company, had invaded the territory of the South African Republic, or the Transvaal, and had been forced to surrender to the Boers at Krugersdorp. This rash step had been taken, apparently, in order to support a proposed rising among the "Uitlanders," or foreign residents of Johannesburg, chiefly Englishmen, who complained of unjust treatment by the Boer Government. Dr. Jameson and his officers were handed over to their own Government to be dealt with, and they were sentenced to various terms of imprisonment. The leaders of the projected revolt in Johannesburg were condemned to death—a sentence which was, however, at once commuted.

3. Matabele Revolt: 1896.—In the absence of Dr. Jameson and his forces from South Africa, a revolt broke out among the Matabele, and a British force was sent to Matabeleland to punish the rebels, who had murdered a number of white settlers. The Matabele were defeated, and their stronghold in the Matoppo Hills, Rhodesia, was captured. About a month later their complete surrender was announced.

4. **Ashantee**: 1896.—In the preceding year it had been decided to send an expedition against Prempeh, King of Ashantee, in order to enforce the terms of the agreement made after the former Ashantee War (1874), to put an end to human sacrifices, to remove restrictions on trade, and to pay the indemnity due for that war. The king surrendered, and a British resident was appointed to direct the administration of the country. Prince Henry of Battenberg, who served as a volunteer in the expedition, contracted fever on the march, and died at sea on the 20th of January while on his way to Madeira.

5. **Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee**: 1897.—In September 1896 the reign of Queen Victoria had equalled that of the reign of George the Third. Public rejoicings were, however, postponed until the sixtieth year of her reign was completed. The 22nd of June was accordingly appointed for the public celebration of her Diamond Jubilee; for not only had she reigned longer than any other British sovereign, but she had so won the hearts of her people that they were anxious to express to her publicly their loyalty and their gratitude. A very significant feature of the celebration was the presence of the Prime Ministers of all our large self-governing colonies, and of representative companies of troops from every corner of our widespread empire.

6. **The Afridis**: 1897.—In the same year a British force was sent against the Afridis and other hill tribes inhabiting the country around the Khyber

Pass. They refused to acknowledge British authority, and in the war which ensued they held out stubbornly, and severely tested British courage and endurance. In the end the tribes submitted.

7. Reconquest of the Soudan : 1898.—In 1896, after the Soudan had been sealed up, as it were, for nearly fifteen years, its reconquest was begun. In 1897, after some severe fighting with the Dervishes, Sir Herbert (now Lord) Kitchener, at the head of British and Egyptian troops, pushed on to Berber. Early in 1898 the Mahdi's army was completely defeated at the battle of Atbara; and in the following September, at Omdurman, the Dervish power in the Soudan was finally shattered by the defeat of the Khalifa, the Mahdi's successor.

8. Irish Local Government : 1898.—In this year an Act was passed for setting up in Ireland County, Urban, and Rural District Councils. The object of this Act was to place the local government of counties and districts in the hands of elected representatives of the people. These bodies have control over the public money spent in their respective districts, and are allowed to levy rates for carrying on the work of local government.

9. War with the Boers : 1899.—Since 1881, when the Transvaal got back its right of self-government, the country had rapidly developed, chiefly owing to the discovery of gold, which caused many new settlers, or "Uitlanders," to make their homes in the state. The Boers were not willing to give these Uitlanders the same political rights as they themselves enjoyed. At the same time, the Uitlanders

paid the greater part of the taxes for the upkeep of the state.

10. During 1899 the British Government tried to induce the Transvaal Republic to give the franchise to the Uitlanders, but the request was steadily refused. On the 11th of October, the Boers declared war against Britain, and, assisted by the Orange Free State, invaded the British colonies of Natal and Cape Colony. A long and protracted war followed, and in the following year the two republics were occupied, and added to the British Empire. They were called the Transvaal Colony and the Orange River Colony.

11. In order to obtain the opinion of the country on the policy of the Government in connection with the South African War, Parliament was dissolved in the autumn of 1900. The result of the general election which followed was entirely in favour of the Government, and Lord Salisbury again returned to power with a majority of 134.

12. **The Empire in Mourning : 1901.**—On the 22nd of January, Queen Victoria, the beloved and revered sovereign of Great Britain and Ireland, passed away at Osborne House, surrounded by her children and grandchildren. She was in her eighty-second year, and had lived longer and reigned longer than any other British King or Queen. The grief of the British Empire was profound, and expressions of sympathy came from every quarter of the globe. No sovereign had ever been so beloved by her people; no sovereign had ever so completely deserved the affection of her subjects.

71. EDWARD VII.

1901 to 1910: 9 years.

1. **Edward the Seventh : 1901.**—When Queen Victoria died, her eldest son, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, succeeded to the throne, with the title of Edward the Seventh. At his accession the South African War was still raging.

2. **End of the Boer War : 1902.**—The great bulk of the nation remained firm in their resolution to carry on the struggle which had been forced upon them, but in the spring of 1902 the prospects of peace began to brighten. On the 15th of May delegates from the two Boer states met at Vereeniging, and after some hesitation agreed to accept the British terms. The long war, which had cost the empire nearly 45,000 men and upwards of £200,000,000, thus came to an end.

3. **Retirement of Lord Salisbury : 1902.**—The Marquis of Salisbury, who had been Prime Minister, with the exception of a short interval (1892–5), since 1886, retired from office, full of years and honour. He died in 1904. Mr. A. J. Balfour became Premier.

4. **Alliance with Japan : 1902, 1905.**—In February 1902, in view of impending troubles in the Far East, Great Britain took the unusual step of signing a treaty of alliance with an Asiatic power—Japan. After the great war between Russia and Japan (1904–5), Great Britain renewed with Japan the treaty of alliance. This treaty, which was signed in August 1905, is to last for ten years.

5. **Education Acts of 1902-3.**—The parliamentary session of 1902 was a long and arduous one. The most important measure was an Education Act. The schools kept up by the Established Church were to receive aid from the local rates, while at the same time they were brought partly under popular control. In the following year one of the chief measures was an Education Act for London, which, owing to its peculiar conditions, had been omitted from the scope of the Act of 1902.

6. **Britain and France: 1903.**—In 1903 the King paid a visit to President Loubet in Paris; and at about the same time negotiations were opened with a view to removing the various obstacles which hindered a good understanding between Britain and France. A general agreement between the two countries was signed in April 1904.

7. **The Land Purchase Act for Ireland: 1903.**—This Act provided that the large sum of £100,000,000 should be advanced by the Treasury to aid the voluntary sale of estates by landlords to tenants. The loan was to spread over a term of fifteen years. After payment of their regular rents for about forty years, the tenants who buy under the Act will become full owners of their holdings.

8. **The Licensing Act: 1904.**—The chief piece of legislation in 1904 was the Licensing Act, which provided for the gradual suppression of licences and a lessening of the number of public-houses. It established a system of compensation to be given whenever a public-house was suppressed.

9. **Canada: 1905.**—A rapid development has

taken place in the North-Western Territories, the southern portion of which, between British Columbia and Manitoba, was formed in 1905 into the provinces of Alberta and Saskatchewan. New lines of railway were rapidly pushed across the continent; enormous areas of land were opened up to settlers for cultivation; and large numbers of immigrants, nearly a third of whom came from the United States, have entered the country.

10. **Change of Ministry:** 1905.—In 1905 the Ministry and the Parliament were very apparently drawing near their end, and the resignation of Mr. Balfour came in December. A Liberal Government was formed under Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, and Parliament was soon afterwards dissolved. The general election, which took place in January 1906, resulted in an overwhelming victory for the new Government. Such a majority had not been since 1832. The chief feature in the new Parliament was the presence of a new Labour party, numbering fifty-one members.

11. **Education Bill:** 1906.—The great fight of the session of 1906 took place over the Education Bill. This large measure aimed at bringing the elementary schools of the country, including those supported by any religious body, under complete public control. It passed the Commons, but the amendments made to it by the Lords were all refused by the majority of the Lower House, and the Bill was dropped.

12. **Self-government for the Transvaal and the Orange Free State:** 1907.—Early in 1907 self-

government was established in both colonies. A new spirit had sprung up since the war, and both parties had learned to respect each other. The question of inclusion in the British Empire had been settled once for all, and the generous treatment meted out to the conquered produced a good effect.

13. The Territorial Army and Reserve Forces Act: 1907.—In 1907 Mr. Haldane carried through his scheme of army reform. It brought the yeomanry and volunteers together in a new territorial force, the number aimed at being 300,000 men.

14. Mr. Asquith Prime Minister: 1908.—In April 1908 Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, whose health had for some time been bad, retired from office. Three weeks later he died. Mr. Asquith became Prime Minister, and Mr. Lloyd-George Chancellor of the Exchequer.

15. Old Age Pensions Act: 1908. Several important Acts of Parliament were passed during the session of 1908. One of these was the Old Age Pensions Act, which provided a pension of five shillings a week for all persons over the age of seventy who might be in need of such assistance. This measure was accepted by all parties, and has been a great benefit to many deserving poor.

16. The Licensing Bill: 1908.—The Licensing Bill aimed at the speedy suppression of one-third of the existing public-houses, but failed, in the view of its opponents, to provide proper compensation for the licence-holders and for those who had invested money in such property. The opposition within

and without Parliament was such as to embolden the House of Lords to reject the Bill.

17. **The Union of South Africa : 1909.**—Various causes led all parties in South Africa to desire some form of federal union. In February 1909 the scheme of federation, to include the provinces of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State, was published. The Dutch and English languages are placed on an equal footing. The seat of government is at Pretoria, but the Parliament meets at Cape Town. General Botha was the first Prime Minister of the Union.

18. **Irish Land Act : 1909.**—The stormy session of 1909 was almost entirely occupied by the struggle over the Budget. Time was, however, found for passing several measures of secondary importance. An Irish Land Act, developing the Act of 1903, pledging the country to a large additional outlay in furthering the sale of estates to tenants, and giving powers of compulsory purchase to certain authorities in Ireland, was amended in the Upper House, but eventually became law.

19. **The Finance Bill : 1909.**—This Bill, introduced by Mr. Lloyd-George, as Chancellor of the Exchequer, went beyond all previous finance bills in several directions. A large deficit, due chiefly to old age pensions and the requirements of the navy, was expected. In order to meet this, it was proposed to levy various new taxes and raise some existing ones. These proposals met with violent opposition, both inside and outside Parliament. The Bill passed the Commons by a large majority; but,

after a week's debate, the Lords decided, by a majority of 350 to 75, to throw it out. The House of Commons at once voted, by an almost equally large majority, that this action was "a breach of the constitution, and a violation of the rights of the Commons."

20. General Election: 1910.—The questions on which the issue mainly turned were those of the Budget and the House of Lords. Apart from the Irish Nationalists, who returned in the same strength as before, and from the Labour members, whose number was somewhat reduced, the country was almost evenly divided between Liberals and Unionists—the former numbering 275, the latter 273.

21. Death of Edward: 1910.—The promised attack on the House of Lords was impending when suddenly the news of the King's serious illness broke upon the world. Two days later, on the 6th of May, he died. The mourning of the nation was deep and universal, for Edward the Seventh, by his geniality and unfailing courtesy, by his interest in works of public utility, his industry, tact, political wisdom, and skill, had endeared himself to every class and section of his people.

PERSONS OF NOTE—NINETEENTH CENTURY.

I.—LEADING AUTHORS.

- S. T. COLERIDGE** (1772–1834)—a poet of the Lake school—chief works, *The Ancient Mariner*, *Christabel*.
- THOMAS CAMPBELL** (1777–1844)—a poet—author of *Pleasures of Hope* (1799), *Gertrude of Wyoming* (1809), *Hohenlinden*, *Battle of the Baltic*, and *Mariners of England*.
- ROBERT SOUTHEY** (1774–1843)—a Lake poet—Laureate (1813–1843)—author of poems, *Thalaba* (1801), *Madoc* (1805), *Curse of Kehama* (1810); and prose works, *Life of Nelson* (1813).
- SIR WALTER SCOTT** (1771–1832)—novelist and poet—chief poems, *Lay of the Last Minstrel* (1805), *Marmion*, and *Lady of the Lake*—author of the Waverley Novels: *Ivanhoe*, etc. (1814–1831).
- LORD BYRON** (1788–1824)—romantic poet—author of *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage* (1812–1818), the *Giaour*, and the *Corsair*.
- WILLIAM WORDSWORTH** (1770–1850)—chief of Lake poets—Laureate (1843–1850)—lived at Rydal Mount—chief poem, *The Excursion* (1814)—other works, *The White Doe of Rylstone* and *The Prelude*.
- THOMAS MOORE** (1779–1852)—Irish lyric poet—author of *Irish Melodies*, *Lalla Rookh*, an Eastern tale, etc.
- SAMUEL ROGERS** (1762–1855)—a London banker—poet—wrote *Pleasures of Memory* (1822), and *Italy*.
- FELICIA HEMANS** (1794–1835)—lyric poetess—chief work, *Forest Sanctuary*, *Graves of a Household*, *Voice of Spring*, etc.
- CHARLES LAMB** (1775–1834)—clerk in India House—essayist—chief work, *Essays of Elia*.
- HENRY HALLAM** (1777–1859)—historian—author of *Constitutional History of England* (1827) and *Literature of Europe* (1837–1838).
- SIR DAVID BREWSTER** (1781–1868)—wrote *Letters on Natural Magic*, and a *Life of Newton*—famous for his discoveries in optics.
- LORD MACAULAY** (1800–1859)—historian and poet—chief works, *History of England* (1849), *Lays of Ancient Rome*.
- LORD LYTTON** (Sir Edward Bulwer)—(1805–1872)—novels, *Rienzi*, *Last of the Barons*, *Caxtons*, etc.; plays, *Richelieu*, *Lady of Lyons*.
- THOMAS CARLYLE** (1795–1881)—native of Dumfries-shire—moralist and historian—author of *Sartor Resartus* (1833), *French Revolution* (1837), and *Frederick the Great* (1858).
- CHARLES DICKENS** (1812–1870)—novelist—wrote *Pickwick Papers*, *Old Curiosity Shop*, *David Copperfield*, etc.
- ROBERT BROWNING** (1812–1889)—poet—author of *How they Brought the Good News from Ghent*.
- JOHN RUSKIN** (1819–1900)—art critic—author of *Modern Painters*, etc.

PERSONS OF NOTE.

- ALFRED, LORD TENNYSON** (1809-1892)—Poet-Laureate—author of *The Queen of the May*, *In Memoriam* (1850), *Idylls of the King* (1859).
- WILLIAM M. THACKERAY** (1811-1863)—novelist and lecturer—author of *Vanity Fair* (1846), *Esmond* (1852), *The Newcomes* (1855).
- HUGH MILLER** (1802-1856)—journalist and geologist—author of the *Old Red Sandstone* (1841), *Footprints of the Creator* (1850).
- GEORGE ELIOT** (1819-1880)—novelist and poetess—wrote *Adam Bede* and *Romola*, novels; and *The Spanish Gipsy*, a dramatic poem.

II.—LEADING ARTISTS.

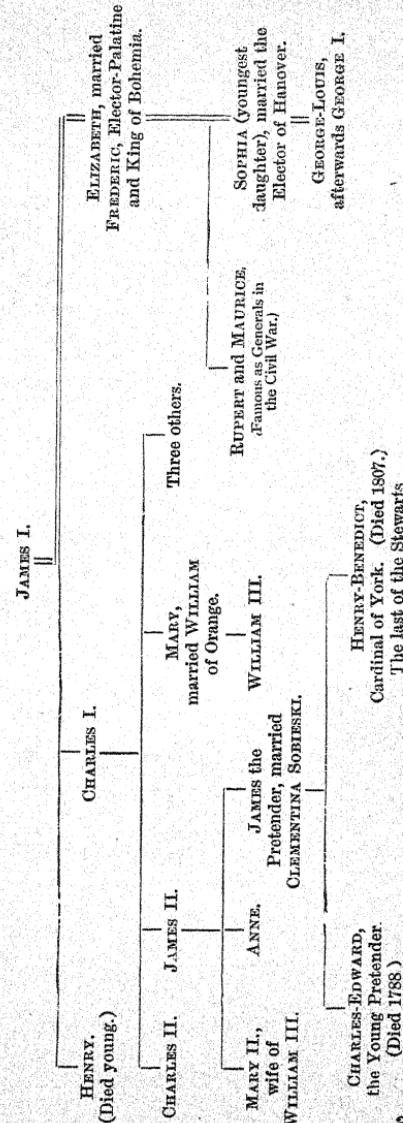
- BENJAMIN WEST** (1738-1820)—an American—a distinguished historical painter—President of the Royal Academy.
- JOHN FLAXMAN** (1755-1826)—a great sculptor—Professor of Sculpture to the Royal Academy.
- SIR THOMAS LAWRENCE** (1769-1830)—celebrated for his portraits—elected President of the Royal Academy 1820.
- SIR DAVID WILKIE** (1785-1841)—famed for his paintings of Scottish peasant life—chief works, his *Blind Fiddler*, *Village Festival*.
- SIR FRANCIS CHANTREY** (1781-1841)—sculptor—finest work, *Monument of Two Sisters* in Lichfield Cathedral.
- JOSEPH M. W. TURNER** (1769-1851)—one of the best landscape-painters of the English school.

III.—LEADING INVENTORS AND DISCOVERERS.

- SIR HUMPHRY DAVY** (1778-1829)—the inventor of the Safety Lamp (1815)—made great discoveries in chemistry and electricity.
- GEORGE STEPHENSON** (1781-1848)—the great Railway Engineer—
inventor of the Locomotive Engine. His son Robert was the
engineer of the famous Tubular Bridge over the Menai Strait.
- SIR MARK ISAMBARD BRUNEL** (1769-1849)—a distinguished engineer
—greatest work, the Thames Tunnel; begun 1825, finished 1843.
- SIR JOSEPH PAXTON** (1803-1865)—once gardener to the Duke of
Devonshire—designer of the Crystal Palace of 1851.
- W. FOTHERGILL COOKE** and **CHARLES WHEATSTONE** may be re-
garded as the joint-inventors of the Electric Telegraph (1837).
- DAVID LIVINGSTONE** (1813-1873)—African missionary and traveller—
discovered *Lake Ngami* (1849), Zambezi *Victoria Falls*, and *Lake Nyassa* (1859).
- JOHN HANNING SPEKE** (1827-1864)—an Indian officer—noted as an
African explorer—discovered the *Victoria Nyanza* in 1858.
- SIR SAMUEL BAKER** (1821-1893)—ascending the White Nile from
Khartoum, he discovered the *Albert Nyanza* in 1864.

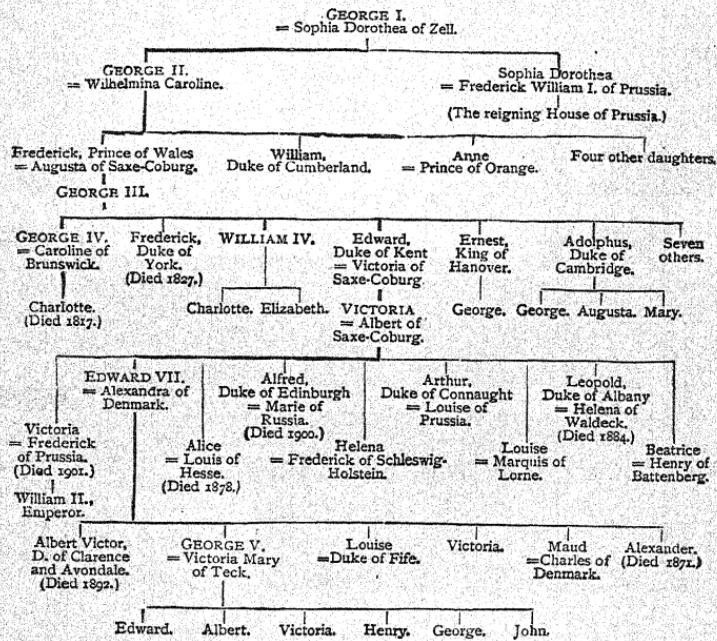
GENEALOGICAL TREE

CONNECTING THE STEWARTS WITH THE HOUSE OF HANOVER.



GENEALOGICAL TREE.

THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.



A BRIEF OUTLINE OF THE HISTORY OF ENGLAND.

THE ROMANS IN BRITAIN.

[*The Roman Republic was at this time the most powerful State in the world. In the time of Julius Caesar it included nearly the whole of the then known world.*]

B.C.

55. Julius Caesar crosses from Gaul to Britain, and goes back to Gaul after seventeen days' absence.
54. Caesar returns to Britain, and exacts tribute.

He went back to Gaul without having made any real conquest; and the Romans left Britain undisturbed for the next ninety-seven years.

A.D.

43. In the reign of the Emperor Claudius, the Romans return and gain a footing in the island.
50. Caractacus is taken prisoner to Rome.
61. The Druids are destroyed in the island of Mona (Anglesey).
61. Boadicea, Queen of the Iceni, defeats the Romans and burns London in 59. In 61 she is in turn defeated. She is said to have poisoned herself.
78. Julius Agricola takes the command in Britain, and conquers the greater part of the island. He throws up a line of forts between the Forth and the Clyde (81 A.D.).
121. The Emperor Hadrian (Adrian) builds a wall or rampart between the Tyne and the Solway Firth.
139. Agricola's forts (Forth and Clyde) are connected by a continuous fortification, called Antonine's Wall.
So called after Antoninus, then Emperor.
208. The Emperor Severus marches to the Moray Firth, and on his return strengthens Hadrian's rampart (Tyne and Solway); hence called the Wall of Severus.

* The Dates enclosed between lines are those which it is essential to remember. It is enough if the young scholar learns the order of the events between these leading dates.

410. Honorius withdraws the Roman legions from Britain.

Rome was then threatened by the Goths and other northern barbarians, and the Emperor had need of all his forces at home. This exposed the South Britons to the attacks of the Picts and the Scots (the Celtic natives of North Britain and of Ireland). The Britons then asked for help from the English pirates, by whom their shores were invaded.

THE ENGLISH CONQUEST.**449 to 827 A.D.—378 years.**

[The term "*Old-English*" as applied to this period of history is better than the terms "Saxon" and "Anglo-Saxon" commonly in use.
The Old English States which at any time occupied an independent position were—

- I. Kent, founded by Jutes.
- II. Sussex, founded by Saxons (South Saxons).
- III. Wessex, founded by Saxons (West Saxons).
- IV. Essex, founded by Saxons (East Saxons).
- V. Middlesex (Middle Saxons), soon absorbed in Essex.
- VI. Bernicia, { founded by Angles, and combined into Northumbria (be-
- VII. Deira, } tween the Forth and the Humber) in 603.
- VIII. East Anglia, founded by Angles, and divided into Northfolk and South-folk.
- IX. Middle Anglia, founded by Angles, west of East Anglia.
- X. Southumbria, founded by Angles, south of the Humber.
- XI. Mercia (including IX. and X.), between East Anglia and Wales.]

449. The coming of the English—Hengest and Horsa, leaders of the Jutes, land at Ebbsfleet (Thanet).

The Britons were driven into the west, and separated into three provinces—West Wales (Cornwall), North Wales, and Cumbria.

597. Augustine is sent to Britain by Gregory the Great, and Kent becomes Christian.**626. Edwin (Eadwine) of Northumbria becomes overlord of England.****758. Offa of Mercia begins to reign.**

He drove back the Welsh and built a wall or rampart, called Offa's Dyke, from the mouth of the Dee to that of the Wye.

784. Offa conquers Northumbria and Wessex, and thus becomes overlord of England.**827. Egbert of Wessex subdues Mercia; Northumbria also submits to him, and he becomes overlord of England.**

In his charters he sometimes called himself *Rex Anglorum*, or King of the English.

THE STRUGGLE WITH THE DANES.

827 to 1017 A.D.—190 years.

[*The Danes, who had begun their descents on the English coasts in 787; were Norsemen or Scandinavians, from Norway, Sweden, and Denmark. They were men of kindred race with the English.*]

835. Egbert defeats the Danes and the Welsh at HENGEST'S-DOWN, in Cornwall.

836. Egbert dies, and is succeeded by Ethelwulf.

The next four kings were the sons of Ethelwulf—namely, Ethelbald (857), Ethelbert (860), Ethelred I. (860), Alfred (871).

868. The Danes conquer East Anglia, and Guthrum their leader assumes its crown.

871. Alfred becomes King of Wessex. The Danes threaten him on all sides. Two years later they conquer Mercia.

877. The Danes overrun Wessex. Alfred and his followers retire to the Isle of Athelney (Somersetshire).

878. Alfred defeats the Danes at EDINGTON (Ethandun) in Wiltshire. The Peace of Wedmore (Somersetshire) is signed.

The Danes were allowed to hold Essex, East Anglia, and the north-east of Mercia as vassals of Wessex.

901. Death of Alfred the Great.

912. The Norsemen settle in the north-west of France.

Hence the land they got there was called Normandy.

924. Edward the Elder (Alfred's son) is owned as overlord by all England, and even by the Scots and the Britons of Strathclyde.

925. Athelstan becomes King.

937. King Athelstan of Wessex defeats the Danes, the North Britons, and the Scots at BRUNANBURH.

940. Edmund the First becomes King.

946. Edred becomes King.

955. Edwy becomes King.

959. Edgar the Peaceable becomes King.

975. Edward the Martyr is King, and is murdered four years after.

978. Ethelred the Unready becomes King.

980. The Danes renew their ravages. Mercia and Northumbria separate from Wessex. Ethelred II. (The Unready) buys a truce with the Danes.

To pay this bribe he levied a tax called (from its purpose) *Dane-geld*, or Dane-money.

997. The Danes return in greater numbers. They are again bought off. Many settle in Wessex.

1002. On St. Brice's Day, the West Saxons massacre the Danes who had settled in Wessex.

- 1003.** **Sweyn**, the Danish King, attacks Essex.
1013. **Sweyn** gains the English throne. Ethelred is driven from the country (1014).
 He took refuge with Duke Richard of Normandy, whose sister Emma he had married. On Sweyn's death, Ethelred was recalled.
1016. On Ethelred's death the kingdom is divided between **Edmund Ironside**, Ethelred's son, and **Canute (Cnut)**, the son of Sweyn.
1017. On Edmund Ironside's death, **Canute the Dane** is acknowledged as sole King of England.
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THE DANISH KINGS.

1017 to 1042 A.D.—25 years.

CANUTE. 1017 to 1035 A.D.—18 years.

- Son of Sweyn of Denmark. Married Emma of Normandy, widow of Ethelred.*
1017. **Canute** divides England into four provinces or earldoms—Northumbria, Mercia, East Anglia, and Wessex.
 His policy was to blend Danes with Englishmen in a united kingdom.
1020. **Godwin** is made Earl of Wessex.
 Canute had given him his daughter in marriage. He heartily supported Canute's policy, and became by-and-by the most powerful man in England.

HAROLD I 1035 to 1040 A.D.—5 years.

Son of Canute.

- 1036.** Alfred, younger son of Ethelred and Emma, crosses from Normandy to claim the throne.
 Having been seized (it was said by Earl Godwin), his eyes were put out, and he soon afterwards died.

HARDICANUTE. 1040 to 1042 A.D.—2 years.

Son of Canute and Emma of Normandy

- 1042.** Hardicanute dies, leaving no heir. The crown is given to Edward the son of Ethelred.
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THE ENGLISH LINE RESTORED.

1042 to 1066 A.D.—24 years.

EDWARD (The Confessor). 1042 to 1066 A.D.—24 years.

Son of Ethelred and Emma of Normandy. Married Editha, daughter of Earl Godwin.

- 1042.** Edward fills his court with Normans.
 Edward had been brought up in Normandy, and was more a Frenchman than an Englishman.

1049. Edward the Confessor begins to build Westminster Abbey.
1051. Godwin is forced to seek shelter in Flanders.
 The burghers of Dover had attacked Eustace, Count of Boulogne, who had married the King's sister. The King ordered Godwin to punish them. Godwin refused, and withdrew beyond seas.
1052. William, Duke of Normandy, visits England.
1052. Godwin is recalled and restored; and the Norman favourites are outlawed and flee. Godwin soon dies, and is succeeded by his son Harold.
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THE NORMAN CONQUEST.

1060. Harold is wrecked on the coast of Normandy; Duke William seizes him, but releases him on his swearing to support William's claim to the English crown.
1066. Edward dies, and Harold is elected his successor.
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HAROLD II. 1066 A.D.

Son of Earl Godwin.

1066. William of Normandy prepares to claim the throne.
1066. Harold Hardrada of Norway, and Tostig, King Harold's brother, invade the north of England, and are defeated (September 25) by Harold at STAMFORD BRIDGE (Yorkshire).
1066. William lands at Pevensey in Sussex (September 28). Harold marches southward, and is defeated and slain in the Battle of SENLAC HILL (or Hastings), October 14.
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THE NORMAN LINE.

WILLIAM I. (The Conqueror). 1066 to 1087 A.D.—21 years.

FIRST KING OF THE NORMAN LINE.

Son of Robert (The Devil). Married Matilda of Flanders.

1066. The Witan meets at London, and chooses Edgar Atheling, grandson of Edmund Ironside, as King.
1066. William threatens London, and Archbishop Stigand offers him the crown. He is crowned on Christmas-day.
1067. William visits Normandy. The tyranny of his regents excites revolts of the English.
1069. William takes York, and lays waste the country between the Ouse and the Tyne.

1070. Stigand is deposed, and Lanfranc is called from Normandy to take his place.

Thereafter the English prelates and abbots were generally set aside for Normans all over England.

1071. William forces the last stronghold of the English in the Fens of Ely, but Hereward, their leader, escapes.

This was the last rising of the English. The Norman Conquest was now complete. William afterwards pardoned Hereward, and restored his estates to him.

1072. William marches into Scotland, and receives the submission of Malcolm III. William divides the lands taken from the English among his Norman followers.

These lands were held on the condition of military service being rendered for them. Thus the **Feudal System** was introduced.

1079. William besieges his son Robert in the Castle of Gerberoi (Normandy). They meet in single combat, and the King is unhorsed and wounded.

Robert was called Duke of Normandy, but, prompted by the French King, he wished to be duke in more than in name.

1086. **Domesday Book**, ordered to be prepared in the previous year, is completed.

The owner of every estate had to pay certain dues to the King. In order to fix the amount of these dues, William made a complete survey of England, county by county, and hundred by hundred. The record contains the value of each estate, both before the Conquest and after it, the number and even the names of its owners, the proportions of arable and of pasture land, the number of cattle on it, and other particulars.

1086. The land-owners do homage to William at Salisbury.

1087. William dies from the effects of an accident, at Mantes, in France.

In this reign **Forest Laws** were passed, imposing severe penalties on those who injured game in the royal estates.

By the Normans also the custom was instituted of ringing the **curfew** bell (from French *couver feu*, "fire-cover") every night at eight o'clock, as a signal for all fires and candles to be put out.

WILLIAM II. (Rufus, or the Red). 1087 to 1100 A.D.—13 years.

Second son of William I.

1088. The Norman barons plot to place Robert (the Conqueror's eldest son) on the throne. The English support William, and the barons are defeated.

1091. William attempts to take Normandy from Robert. It is agreed that the survivor shall hold the united dominions.

1093. While besieging Alnwick Castle, **Malcolm III.** of Scotland and his eldest son are slain.

1093. Anselm is made Archbishop of Canterbury.

Lanfranc had died four years before (1089), but William kept the see vacant and seized its revenues. Alarmed by illness, he suddenly forced Anselm to accept the see.

1096. Robert gives up Normandy and Maine to William for five years, to procure money to join the Crusade.

The First Crusade was preached by Pope Urban II. and Peter the Hermit in 1095. The Crusades (Wars of the Cross) were a series of wars to recover Jerusalem from the Saracens.

1097. The quarrel between Anselm and William comes to a head; Anselm quits England and retires to Rome.

When Anselm was installed, the King demanded the customary present of money. Anselm offered five hundred marks. The King refused so small a sum. Anselm had no more to give. Hence arose questions regarding the power of the Church and the power of the King, which troubled England for many a day.

1100. William the Red is found dead in the New Forest, with an arrow in his breast.

The common story is that Walter Tyrrel, one of his knights, aimed at a stag, but that his arrow glanced from a tree and pierced the King. Another account says that he was murdered.

William II. built a wall around the Tower, a bridge over the Thames, and Westminster Hall.

HENRY I. (The Scholar). 1100 to 1135 A.D.—35 years.

Third son of William I. Married—(1) Edith-Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland; (2) Adelais of Louvain.

1100. Robert being absent on the Crusade, Henry seizes the royal treasures at Winchester, and is crowned at Westminster.**1100.** Henry recalls Archbishop Anselm.

The contest between the Crown and the Church began again.

1100. Henry marries Edith-Matilda, daughter of Malcolm III. of Scotland, and of Margaret, sister of Edgar Atheling.

This marriage, which united the Norman and Old English royal lines, gave great joy to the people.

1103. Anselm again quarrels with the King and leaves England.**1106.** Henry invades Normandy, and defeats Robert at TENCHEBRAL.

Robert was taken prisoner, and was confined in Cardiff Castle (Wales) till his death, in 1135.

1120. William, the King's son, is drowned in the English Channel.

The White Ship, in which he sailed from Normandy for England, was wrecked.

- 1125.** Maud, Henry's daughter, and widow of the Emperor Henry V. is married to Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, a boy of sixteen.
1135. Henry I. dies, leaving his daughter Maud as his heir.
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STEPHEN (of Blois). 1135 to 1154 A.D.—19 years.

Grandson of William I., his mother being Adela, the Conqueror's daughter. Married Matilda of Boulogne, niece of Queen Matilda, wife of Henry I.

- 1135.** Stephen is crowned King at Westminster.
 His election was due mainly to the promises he made to all classes—especially to the barons, whom he allowed to build castles on their estates.
- 1138.** David I. of Scotland, Maud's uncle, invades England on her behalf. He is defeated at NORTHALLERTON (Yorkshire).
 This engagement is called the Battle of the Standard, from the tall post, hoisted on a car, from which the English banners floated.
- 1139.** Maud lands on the south coast with 140 knights.
 In the civil war which followed, London and the East sided with Stephen; Bristol and the West with Maud.
- 1141.** Stephen is taken prisoner at the Battle of LINCOLN, and Maud is acknowledged as Queen. Her half-brother Robert is captured and is exchanged for Stephen.
- 1147.** Maud withdraws to Normandy.
- 1153.** By the Treaty of Wallingford, Henry of Anjou, who had invaded England, is acknowledged as Stephen's heir.
- 1154.** Stephen dies.
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THE PLANTAGENET LINE.

HENRY II. (Curtmantle). 1154 to 1189 A.D.—35 years.

FIRST KING OF THE HOUSE OF ANJOU.

Son of Geoffrey of Anjou and of Maud, daughter of Henry I. Married Eleanor of Poitou and Aquitaine.

- 1154.** Henry and his Queen are crowned at Westminster.
 Henry's possessions were more extensive than those of any former English King.
- 1154.** Henry sets himself to redress abuses, and to check the power of the barons.
 He pulled down the castles of the barons, and drove the foreign hirelings from the realm.

1162. Thomas Becket (or, à Becket) is made Archbishop of Canterbury. He opposes Henry's Church reforms.

It was really the same quarrel as that of William the Red and Henry I. with Anselm.

1164. The Constitutions of Clarendon, asserting the King's supremacy, are passed by a Council held at Clarendon (Wilts). Becket first assents to the Constitutions, then retracts and flees to France.

1170. Becket returns, and excommunicates all who hold the lands of his see. Four of the King's knights murder Becket in the Cathedral of Canterbury.

1172. Henry receives at Dublin the homage of several Irish chiefs.

1174. Henry, the King's eldest son, rebels. His brothers Richard and Geoffrey also take arms. There are revolts in various parts of England. The King's forces repel all these attacks.

1174. Henry does penance for the murder of Becket at his shrine at Canterbury.

William the Lion of Scotland was made prisoner at Alnwick, and forced to acknowledge the King of England as his overlord.

1189. Henry dies at Chinon (Touraine), and is buried at Fontevraud (Anjou).

RICHARD I. (The Lion-hearted). 1189 to 1199 A.D.—10 years.

Son of Henry II. Married Berengaria of Navarre.

1189. The Jews in London and other large towns are massacred, and their houses are burned.

1190. Richard raises money to join the Third Crusade.

He gave up for 10,000 marks the homage which in 1174 his father had wrested from the King of Scots.

1193. Richard, returning from Palestine, is wrecked in the Gulf of Venice, and is imprisoned in the Tyrol by the Emperor Henry VI.

1194. Richard is ransomed, and returns to England.

1196. Richard makes war on Philip of France.

1198. Richard is struck by an arrow, and dies, while besieging the Castle of Chaluz.

JOHN (Lackland). 1199 to 1216 A.D.—17 years.

Son of Henry II. Married—(1) Hadwisa of Gloucester; (2) Isabella of Angoulême.

1203. Arthur, Duke of Brittany (John's nephew), is captured while besieging Mirabeau, and is imprisoned at Rouen.

There, it is said, John murdered him with his own hand.

1204. Philip of France conquers Normandy, and strips John of all his French possessions.

1206. The Pope appoints Stephen Langton Archbishop of Canterbury. John defies the Pope, and seizes the treasures of the see.

1208. The Pope lays England under an Interdict.

For six years there was no worship in the land. John in return seized all Church lands.

1210. The Pope excommunicates John.

1212. The Pope deposes John, and calls on Philip of France to carry out the sentence.

1213. John becomes the Pope's vassal, and does homage for his realm.

1215. The Barons, headed by Archbishop Langton, demand from the King the observance of the Charter of Henry I. On his refusal they take arms. John then meets them at Runnymede, and signs the Great Charter (*Magna Carta*).

This, the great foundation-stone of English freedom, secured —(1) the liberty of the subject; (2) the right to refuse to give the King personal property; (3) freedom and equality of justice; (4) taxation by Parliament; (5) just weights and measures; (6) freedom of trade in London and other towns; (7) freedom for foreign merchants to come and go.

1215. The Pope annuls the Great Charter. John traverses the country with foreign troops, and lays it waste.

1216. The barons call in the aid of Louis the Dauphin of France. John retreats northward.

1216. John loses all his baggage and treasures on the shores of the Wash. He is seized with fever, reaches Newark Castle, and dies.

HENRY III. (of Winchester). 1216 to 1272 A.D.—56 years.

Son of John and Isabella. Married Eleanor of Provence.

1216. William, Earl of Pembroke (Earl Mareschal), is made Regent. Many English barons join the young King.

1217. Pembroke dies, and Hubert de Burgh (the Justiciary) succeeds him.

The French army was defeated, and Louis went home.

1223. Henry begins to reign in person.

1232. Hubert de Burgh is thrown into prison. He is succeeded by Peter de Roches, Bishop of Winchester, a Poitevin.

Many Poitevins then came to England, and were favoured at Court.

1236. Henry marries Eleanor of Provence.

Provençals then flocked into England, to the disgust of the English barons.

1253. Parliament meet at Oxford, and appoint a Committee of twenty-four to redress their grievances. They pass the **Provisions of Oxford**.

They were—(1) representation of freeholders in Parliament by four knights from each county; (2) annual election of sheriffs by vote; (3) annual accounts of public money; (4) meeting of Parliament thrice a year.

1258. Henry evades the Provisions of Oxford. The barons revolt under **Simon de Montfort**, Earl of Leicester.

1264. Henry is defeated by Leicester in the Battle of **LEWES** (Sussex), and is taken prisoner.

1265. Leicester calls a **Parliament**, to which, besides barons, prelates, and knights of the shire, he summons **representatives from cities and boroughs**.

This was the first occasion on which burgesses were summoned to Parliament, but they did not form a separate "House."

1265. Prince Edward defeats Leicester at **EVESHAM** (Worcestershire). Leicester is killed, and King Henry is released.

1270. Prince Edward joins the Crusade.

1272. Henry III. dies.

EDWARD I. (Longshanks). 1272 to 1307 A.D.—35 years.

Son of Henry III. Married—(1) Eleanor of Castile; (2) Margaret of France.

1274. Edward and his Queen are crowned at Westminster.

The coronation was delayed by Edward's absence in Palestine.

1282. Llewellyn, Prince of Wales, is slain, and Wales is subdued. Six months later, his brother David is captured and executed.

1284. Prince Edward is born at Caernarvon, and is the first English Prince of Wales.

1290. The Jews are expelled from England.

1291. Margaret, the young Queen of Scots, dies on her voyage to Scotland. Many competitors for the crown appear, and Edward claims the right, as overlord of Scotland, to settle the dispute.

The two chief claimants were John Baliol and Robert Bruce.

1292. At Berwick Edward gives his award in favour of **John Baliol**, who is crowned as King of Scotland.

1295. The **Constitution of Parliament**—consisting of barons, clergy, knights of the shire, and burgesses—is completely established, and its power to control taxation is recognized by the King.

1296. Edward ravages Scotland, dethrones Baliol, appoints English governors, and carries off the ancient coronation stone (**Lia Fail**, the Stone of Destiny), which now forms part of the Coronation Chair in Westminster Abbey.

1297. The Scottish people rise under William Wallace, who defeats the English governor, the Earl of Surrey, in the Battle of STIRLING BRIDGE.
1298. Wallace is surprised and defeated by Edward at FALKIRK.
1305. Wallace is betrayed, and executed at London.
1306. The Scots again revolt under Robert Bruce, who is crowned at Scone.
This Bruce was grandson of the Bruce who competed with Baliol for the crown. (*See* 1291.)
1307. Bruce defeats Pembroke at LOUDON HILL (Ayrshire), and his revolt makes rapid progress.
1307. Edward marches against Bruce, reaches Cumberland, and dies at Burgh-on-Sands, near Carlisle.

EDWARD II. (of Caernarvon). 1307 to 1327 A.D.—20 years.

Son of Edward I. Married Isabella of France.

1310. Parliament appoints a Committee, called Lords Ordainers, to manage the government.
1313. Robert Bruce invests Stirling Castle, having secured all the other leading Scottish fortresses.
1314. Edward II. marches to relieve Stirling Castle, and is defeated by Bruce at BANNOCKBURN.
1322. Parliament (at York) repeals most of the ordinances of 1310, and requires laws to be passed by the King in Parliament, with consent of the burgesses.
1327. Parliament (at Westminster) deposes Edward II., and proclaims his son King, as Edward III. (January).

Nothing is really known of the death of Edward II., but he is believed to have been murdered with great cruelty in Berkeley Castle (Gloucestershire), in September 1327.

EDWARD III. (of Windsor). 1327 to 1377 A.D.—50 years.

Son of Edward II. Married Philippa of Hainault.

1327. The government is intrusted to a Council of Regency, but the real power is in the hands of Isabella and her favourite, Roger Mortimer.
The young King was only thirteen years of age.
1328. By the Treaty of Northampton, the Independence of Scotland is confirmed.
1330. Edward arrests Mortimer in Nottingham Castle, and assumes the government.

1333. Edward defeats the Scots at **HALIDON HILL** (near Berwick).
The English then took Berwick, which ever afterwards remained an English possession on Scottish ground. Hence the separate mention of "Berwick-on-Tweed" in Acts of Parliament.

1339. Edward claims the crown of France, in right of his mother Isabella.

1346. The English defeat the French at **CREGY** (near Calais).

The crest and motto of the King of Bohemia (slain on the field) were adopted by the Prince of Wales.

1346. The English defeat the Scots, under King David, at **NEVIL'S CROSS** (near Durham).

1347. Calais surrenders to Edward, after a siege of a year.

Calais remained in the hands of the English for the next two hundred and eleven years (till 1558).

1349. The Black Death carries off nearly one-third of the nation.

1353. The first **Statute of Praemunire** is passed by Parliament, forbidding the introduction of papal bulls into England; and the **Statute of Provisors**, denying the right of the Pope to appoint ministers to English churches.

1356. The Black Prince gains the Battle of **POICTIERS** (between Tours and Bordeaux).

The French numbered 60,000; the English only 16,000. The English archers won the day. King John of France and his son were made prisoners and taken to England.

1357. King David is set free on payment of a sum of money.

1360. The **Treaty of Bretigny** is concluded between England and France.

Edward renounced his claim to the crown of France, and received Poitou, Guienne, and Calais. King John was to be set free for a ransom of three million golden crowns. Failing to raise this sum, he returned to captivity, and died in the palace of the Savoy, London.

1376. The Commons in Parliament protest against the abuse of the governing power by the barons of the Royal Council.

About this time the Lords and the Commons began to occupy separate chambers.

1376. The Black Prince dies.

1377. Edward III. dies.

RICHARD II. (of Bordeaux). 1377 to 1399 A.D.—22 years.

*Grandson of Edward III., and son of the Black Prince. Married—
(1) Anne of Bohemia; (2) Isabella of France.*

1378. Parliament ordains a **Poll-tax** to be paid on every grown-up person in England. The peasants rise in revolt under Wat Tyler. Tyler is struck down by Lord Mayor Walworth, and is killed. Richard offers to be the leader of the people, and the revolt is checked.

1382. John Wyclif tries to make the Church purer. He retires to Lutterworth, where he dies, 1384.
1387. The government is given to a Council headed by the Duke of Gloucester, one of the King's uncles.
1388. Douglas defeats Hotspur at OTTERBURN. Hotspur is taken prisoner, and Douglas is slain.
1389. The Duke of Gloucester is murdered at Calais. Richard's rule becomes absolute.
1389. The King banishes Henry Bolingbroke, Duke of Hereford, and son of John of Gaunt.
1399. During Richard's absence in Ireland, Hereford returns to claim the estates of his father, who has died. His friends flock to his standard. Richard is deposed, and Hereford is proclaimed as Henry IV.
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HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

HENRY IV. (Bolingbroke). 1399 to 1413 A.D.—14 years.

FIRST KING OF THE HOUSE OF LANCASTER.

*Grandson of Edward III., and son of John of Gaunt. Married—
(1) Mary of Hereford; (2) Jane of Navarre.*

1400. Richard, the deposed King, dies in Pontefract Castle.
1401. The first Statute of Heretics is passed, and William Sawtre is burned at Smithfield.
1402. The Percies defeat Douglas, and take him prisoner at HOMILDON HILL (Northumberland).
1403. The Percies rebel, and are joined by the Scots under Douglas and the Welsh under Owen Glendower. They are defeated in the bloody battle of SHREWSBURY, and Harry Hotspur, the younger Percy, is slain.
1405. Prince James of Scotland (son of Robert III.) is captured when on a voyage to France, and is imprisoned in the Tower.
1411. Henry sends help to the Duke of Burgundy in France.
Prince Henry was sent to prison.
1413. Henry IV. dies.
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HENRY V. (of Monmouth). 1413 to 1422 A.D.—9 years.

Son of Henry IV. Married Catherine of France.

1414. Lord Cobham (patron of the Lollards) is imprisoned in the Tower; a persecution of the Lollards follows.
Cobham was burned as a heretic in 1417.

1415. Henry claims the provinces assigned to the King of England by the Treaty of Bretigny (1360); invades France, takes Harfleur, and defeats the French at AGINCOURT.

Of the French 11,000 fell at Agincourt; of the English, only 1,600. Henry at once returned to England.

1417. Normandy conquered, and Henry becomes master of the greater part of France.

1420. Henry imposes on France the Treaty of Troyes.

Its chief terms were—(1) Henry to marry the Princess Catherine; (2) Henry to be Regent; (3) Henry to succeed Charles VI. on the throne.

1422. Henry dies at Paris.

His widow Catherine married Sir Owen Tudor, a Welsh gentleman. Their eldest son was created Earl of Richmond, and was the father of Henry VII., the first sovereign of the *Tudor line*.

In this reign the famous Richard Whittington was for the third time Lord Mayor of London.

HENRY VI. (of Windsor). 1422 to 1461 A.D.—39 years.

Son of Henry V. Married Margaret of Anjou.

1422. A Council of Regency is appointed, with the Duke of Gloucester as Protector. The Duke of Bedford is Regent of France.

Henry was only nine months old when his father died. Gloucester and Bedford were his uncles.

1428. The English, under the Earl of Salisbury, besiege Orleans (on the Loire).

1429. The siege of Orleans is raised by Joan of Arc, and Charles VII. is crowned at Rheims.

1431. Joan of Arc is burned as a witch at Rouen.

She had been taken prisoner by the Burgundians in 1430, and sold to the English.

1445. Henry marries Margaret of Anjou.

1450. The men of Kent rise in revolt, under Jack Cade.

1451. The French recover everything but the town of Calais.

1454. The King is seized with a fit of insanity, and the Duke of York is made Protector.

1455. The War of the Roses begins. York defeats Somerset at ST. ALBANS (Hertfordshire).

The War of the Roses was so called from the badges of the rival factions—that of Lancaster being a *red*, and that of York a *white rose*.

1460. The Yorkists, under the Earl of Warwick, are victorious at NORTHAMPTON. Henry is taken prisoner. York now claims the throne. Parliament decides that Henry is to reign during his life, and that York is to succeed him.

1460. Queen Margaret raises an army, and defeats the Yorkists at **WAKEFIELD GREEN** (Yorkshire). York is slain, and his son Edward, Earl of March, succeeds him.
1461. The Yorkists defeat the Lancastrians at **MORTIMER'S CROSS** (Herefordshire), Feb. 2.
York marched to London, and was proclaimed King, as **Edward IV.**

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HOUSE OF YORK.**EDWARD IV.** 1461 to 1483 A.D.—22 years.

FIRST KING OF THE HOUSE OF YORK.

*Great-great-grandson of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, son of Edward III.
Married Lady Elizabeth Grey (or Woodville).*

1461. Edward defeats the Lancastrians at **TOWTON** (Yorkshire).
1464. The Lancastrians are again defeated at **HEDGELEY MOOR** (Northumberland), and at **HEXHAM** (Northumberland).
1464. Edward marries Lady Elizabeth Grey (or Woodville).
The Court was soon crowded with Greys and Woodvilles, to the disgust of the old nobility, especially of the Nevilles (Earl of Warwick's family), hitherto Edward's most powerful supporters.
1465. Henry VI. is sent a prisoner to the Tower.
1467. The Duke of Clarence (the King's brother) and Warwick the Kingmaker then conspire against Edward.
1470. Henry VI. is taken out of the Tower by Warwick, and proclaimed King. King Edward flees to Flanders.
1471. Edward defeats Warwick at **BARNET** (Middlesex). Warwick is slain.
1471. Margaret of Anjou is defeated at **TEWKESBURY** (Gloucestershire). Her son, Prince Edward, is murdered after the battle.
1475. Edward invades France. He raises money by Benevolences, or forced presents.
1476. William Caxton sets up the first English printing-press, in the Almonry at Westminster.
1478. The Duke of Clarence, the King's brother, is put to death in the Tower.
1483. Edward dies.

EDWARD V. April 9 to June 25, 1483 A.D.—11 weeks.*Son of Edward IV.*

1483. The King being only twelve years of age, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, his uncle, is chosen Protector by the Council, and accepts the crown.

RICHARD III. (Crookback). 1483 to 1485 A.D.—2 years.

Son of the Duke of York and brother of Edward IV. Married Anne, daughter of the Earl of Warwick and widow of Prince Edward, son of Henry VI.

- 1483.** Edward V. and his brother the Duke of York are murdered in the Tower.

It was said that this deed was done by order of Richard. At the time, Richard was at York receiving his second coronation.

- 1483.** Plots are formed against Richard by the Lancastrians, who support the claim of **Henry Tudor, Earl of Richmond**, to the throne. Richmond's mother was great-grand-daughter of John of Gaunt.

- 1485.** Richmond lands at Milford Haven (Pembrokeshire). Richard meets him (August 22) near **MARKET-BOSWORTH** (Leicestershire); is defeated and slain. Richmond is proclaimed on the field as **Henry VII.**

HOUSE OF TUDOR.**HENRY VII. 1485 to 1509 A.D.—24 years.****FIRST KING OF THE HOUSE OF TUDOR.**

Great-great-grandson of John of Gaunt. Married Elizabeth of York.

- 1485.** Edward, Earl of Warwick, is confined in the Tower.

He was son of the Duke of Clarence, and nephew of Edward IV. and Richard III.

- 1486.** Henry marries **Elizabeth of York**, daughter of Edward IV., and Yorkist heir to the throne.

This marriage united the Houses of York and Lancaster.

- 1487.** An impostor named **Lambert Simnel**, represented to be the Earl of Warwick, is proclaimed as **Edward VI.** in Dublin.

The real Warwick was taken out of his cell and led through the streets of London. Simnel invaded England with foreign troops, and was defeated and captured at **STOKE** (Notts). He was made a scullion in the royal kitchen, and afterwards a falconer.

- 1492.** Henry invades France, besieges Boulogne for a few days, and then agrees to the **Peace of Estaples**.

Henry received £149,000 from the King of France; and, besides, retained all the money he had forced from his own subjects in order to carry on the war.

- 1492.** Christopher Columbus discovers America.

- 1492.** A new impostor named **Perkin Warbeck** appears in Ireland and calls himself Richard, Duke of York, second son of Edward IV., supposed to have been murdered in the Tower in 1483.

- 1496.** Warbeck is acknowledged by James IV. of Scotland.

1497. Warbeck lands in Cornwall, besieges Exeter, is taken and imprisoned.

Two years later, Warbeck and the Earl of Warwick were executed, on the plea that they had planned their escape.

1497. Sebastian Cabot of Bristol discovers Newfoundland. Vasco de Gama doubles the Cape of Good Hope.

1501. Arthur, Henry's eldest son, is married to Catherine of Aragon.

Arthur died five months afterwards, and the Pope allowed Catherine to marry Henry, the King's second son.

1502. Margaret, daughter of Henry VII., marries James IV. of Scotland.

This marriage led to the union of the crowns of England and Scotland 101 years later. (See 1603.)

1509. Henry VII. dies.

HENRY VIII. 1509 to 1547 A.D.—38 years.

Son of Henry VIII. Married—(1) Catherine of Aragon, whom he divorced; (2) Anne Boleyn, who was beheaded; (3) Jane Seymour, who died; (4) Anne of Cleves, whom he divorced; (5) Catherine Howard, who was beheaded; (6) Catherine Parr, who survived him.

1510. Empson and Dudley are executed to please the people.

1510. Thomas Wolsey, Dean of Lincoln, is appointed Chancellor and Archbishop of York.

He was made a Cardinal in 1515, and Papal Legate in England in 1518.

1513. Henry gains the Battle of SPURS in France.

1513. The Scots invade England, but are defeated at FLODDEN FIELD (Northumberland), where James IV. and the flower of his nobles are slain.

1520. Henry meets Francis I. on the Field of the Cloth of Gold, between Guisnes and Ardres (north of France).

1520. The Reformation in Germany begins.

1521. Henry writes a book against Luther, and receives from the Pope the title *Fidei Defensor* (Defender of the Faith).

1523. Henry's empty treasury forces him to call a Parliament, after having ruled without one for seven years.

During that time he had raised money by *benevolences*. As Parliament granted the King only half the sum he asked, Henry took care not to call another Parliament for seven years more.

1526. William Tyndale prints part of the Bible.

1527. Henry professes doubts as to the legality of his marriage with Catherine, his brother's widow, and resolves on a divorce.

Wolsey tried to move him from his purpose, but failed. He then secretly worked against the King.

1529. A Papal Court, with Cardinals Wolsey and Campeggio as judges, is opened at London to try the divorce case.

After sitting seven weeks without deciding anything, the Court transferred the case to Rome. Henry blamed Wolsey for this. Saying that he had unlawfully received bulls from Rome, he took from him the Great Seal, and seized his palace and property. Wolsey retired to Yorkshire. Sir Thomas More succeeded him as Chancellor.

1530. Wolsey is arrested for high treason. On his way to London he is seized with illness, and dies at Leicester Abbey.

1533. Cranmer is made Archbishop of Canterbury. He annuls the King's marriage with Catherine. Henry marries (2) Anne Boleyn.

1534. Parliament declares the King to be Head of the Church in England.

1535. Sir Thomas More and Bishop Fisher are executed for denying the King's supremacy in the Church. Thomas Cromwell is appointed the King's Vicar-General in affairs of the Church.

1536. Miles Coverdale publishes his complete English Bible, translated from the Latin Vulgate.

1536. Parliament passes an Act for the suppression of the lesser monasteries (those with revenues under £200 a year). A rising, called the Pilgrimage of Grace, in support of the Roman Catholic Church, takes place in Lincoln and York.

The Countess of Salisbury, sister of the Earl of Warwick, was beheaded.

1536. Anne Boleyn is beheaded, and Henry marries (3) Jane Seymour.

1536. The Legislative Union of Wales with England is completed.

1537. Prince Edward is born, and Jane Seymour dies.

1539. The greater monasteries are suppressed, and six new bishoprics are erected with part of their revenues.

In all 3,219 religious houses were destroyed, and their revenues (£161,000 a year) were appropriated by the King.

1539. The Great Bible (Cranmer's) is prepared.

1539. Parliament passes the Statute of the Six Articles.

These were—(1) The doctrine of the real presence of the body and blood of Christ in the bread and wine used in the holy communion, or transubstantiation; (2) communion in one kind—the bread only to be taken by those who were not priests; (3) monks and nuns must always remain unmarried; (4) it was right to have private masses; (5) priests to remain unmarried; (6) confession to a priest necessary for salvation. Unbelievers were to be burned. This law, called the Bloody Statute, was followed by a violent persecution.

1539. Parliament enacts that the King's proclamations shall have the force of law.

1540. Henry marries (4) Anne of Cleves.

Within six months she was divorced.

1540. Thomas Cromwell is put to death.

- 1540.** Henry marries (5) **Catherine Howard**, niece of the Duke of Norfolk.
 Eighteen months after her marriage she was beheaded on a charge of treason (1542).
- 1542.** A Scottish army is routed at **SOLWAY MOSS**.
- 1543.** Henry marries (6) **Catherine Parr**, widow of Lord Latimer, and a Protestant.
- 1547.** Henry VIII. dies.

EDWARD VI. 1547 to 1553 A.D.—6 years.

Son of Henry VIII. and Jane Seymour.

- 1547.** The government is intrusted to sixteen Executors appointed under the late King's will. The Earl of Hertford (Edward's uncle) is chosen Protector, and is made **Duke of Somerset**.
- 1547.** Somerset defeats the Scots at **PINKIE** (near Musselburgh).
 Henry VIII. left instructions in his will that his son Edward should be married to **Mary, Queen of Scots**. The Scots objected. Somerset marched northwards to force the wooing, but rumours of plots against his power forced him to return to London.
- 1547.** The **Statute of the Six Articles** is repealed.
- 1549.** The Liturgy is reformed and is translated into English; and the **Forty-two Articles of Religion** are prepared.
- 1549.** Somerset, the Protector, is sent to the Tower.
 This was the work of his rival, **Dudley, Earl of Warwick**. The King remitted Somerset's fine, and he soon regained his liberty.
- 1549.** Low wages, dear food, and discontent owing to the suppression of the monasteries, lead to rebellions.
 The chief was that headed by **Ket**, a tanner, in Norfolk. It was soon put down, and Ket was hanged at Norwich.
- 1550.** Warwick, created Duke of Northumberland, becomes Protector.
- 1552.** Somerset is again arrested: he is convicted and beheaded.
- 1553.** Northumberland persuades Edward that **Lady Jane Grey** is lawful heir to the crown.
- 1553.** Edward VI. dies, aged 16 years.

MARY I. 1553 to 1558 A.D.—5 years.

Daughter of Henry VIII. and Catherine of Aragon. Married Philip II. of Spain.

- 1553.** Lady Jane Grey is proclaimed Queen by Northumberland. London declares for Mary. Dudley, Jane Grey, and the Duke of Suffolk (her father) are arrested, and Northumberland is executed.
- 1553.** Cranmer, Ridley, and Latimer are thrown into prison.
 Mary's object was to restore the Roman Catholic religion in England.
- 1554.** Mary marries Philip II. of Spain.

1554. Lady Jane Grey, Lord Dudley, and the Duke of Suffolk are beheaded.
1555. A terrible persecution of the Protestants begins with that of Canon Rogers, Bishops Hooper, Ridley, and Latimer.
1556. Archbishop Cranmer is burned at Oxford, and is succeeded by Cardinal Pole.
1558. Calais is taken by the French, after having been in the hands of the English for 211 years.
1558. Mary dies.

ELIZABETH. 1558 to 1603 A.D.—45 years.

Daughter of Henry VIII. and Anne Boleyn.

1559. Parliament annuls the laws of Mary against Protestants, and passes the Act of Supremacy and the Act of Uniformity.

The former required all clergymen and all government officials to take an oath acknowledging the Queen as head of the Church. The latter forbade the use of any other form in public worship than the Prayer-book of Edward VI.

A law was made requiring every town in the kingdom to take care of its own poor.

1561. Mary, Queen of Scots, returns from France to Scotland, her husband, Francis II., having died.

Workmen from France and other countries improved the trade and manufactures of England.

1563. The Thirty-nine Articles of Religion are ratified by Parliament, and the Reformed Church of England is finally established.

1564. Birth of William Shakespeare.

1566. The Puritans separate from the Church of England, and hold meetings of their own.

1568. Queen Mary of Scotland flees to England.

Mary was a prisoner during the next eighteen years.

1572. The Duke of Norfolk is executed for high treason.

1572. The Huguenots or Protestants, to the number of 80,000, are massacred in France on St. Bartholomew's Day and following days.

- 1577-1580. Drake sails round the world.

1583. Sir Humphrey Gilbert plants a colony in Newfoundland.

1583. The Court of High Commission is armed with new powers against Nonconformists.

1585. Sir Walter Raleigh establishes the first English settlement in North America, at Roanoke, Virginia.

1586. In a skirmish near Zutphen, in Flanders, Sir Philip Sidney receives his death-wound.

1587. Mary, Queen of Scots, is executed at Fotheringay Castle (Northampton), February 8.

For many years she had been made the centre of plots directed against the throne and the life of Elizabeth. One of these plots, headed by Antony Babington, was discovered in 1586. Fourteen of the conspirators were executed. Mary suffered for her share in it.

1588. Philip II. of Spain sends a great fleet called The Invincible Armada to invade England, and re-establish the power of the Church of Rome there. It is defeated and scattered.

The Armada consisted of 132 large ships. Only 53 returned to Spain.

1595. Drake's last voyage to the West Indies.

1596. Death of Sir Francis Drake.

1598. The Irish rebels, under Hugh O'Neil, Earl of Tyrone, defeat the English forces at Blackwater (Co. Tyrone).

The rebellion was put down by Lord Mountjoy in 1602.

1600. The first Charter is granted to the East India Company, or the London Company of Merchants.

1601. Robert Devereux, Earl of Essex, a favourite of Elizabeth, is executed for high treason.

1603. Queen Elizabeth dies, aged 70, and is succeeded by James VI. of Scotland. This is known as the Union of the Crowns.

JAMES I. 1603 to 1625 A.D.—22 years.

FIRST KING OF THE HOUSE OF STEWART.

Son of Mary, Queen of Scots, and great-great-grandson of Henry VII.

Married Anne of Denmark.

1603. A double plot—the Main and the Bye—is formed by Puritans and Roman Catholics, to imprison the King and to put his cousin Arabella Stewart on the throne. Three of the chief conspirators are executed; and Sir Walter Ralegh, one of the leaders of the Main plot, is imprisoned.

1604. James holds the Hampton Court Conference, to settle the differences between Episcopalianists and Puritans; but it is a failure.

It led to the undertaking of the Translation of the Bible now in use. Forty-seven divines took part in the work, which was issued in 1611.

1605. The Gunpowder Plot, to destroy King, Lords, and Commons, by blowing up the Parliament House with gunpowder, on November 5, is discovered.

1610. The Commons remonstrate with the King on the subject of illegal taxation. The King dissolves Parliament, and governs without one for four years.

1611. James gives to Englishmen and Scotsmen the lands in Ulster taken from Irish rebels.

1612-1614. The royal favourites, Somerset and Buckingham, in power.

1612. Prince Henry dies.

1613. The Princess Elizabeth marries Frederick, the Elector Palatine.

This marriage led to the accession of the **House of Hanover** to the English throne. George I. was the grandson of Elizabeth.

1614. The King calls a **new Parliament**, and asks for supplies. The Commons refuse to vote him any money till he gives up levying unlawful taxes. James dissolves Parliament, and then raises money by **Benevolences**, and rules as an absolute monarch for the next seven years.

1616. Sir Walter Ralegh is released from the Tower.

1616. William Shakespeare dies.

1617. King James visits **Scotland**, and tries to establish Episcopacy there.

1618. Sir Walter Ralegh is executed at Winchester for the part he had taken in the Main plot. (See 1603.)

1618. A struggle for the crown of Bohemia, between Frederick, Elector Palatine, and Ferdinand of Austria, leads to the great **Thirty Years' War**.

1620. The **Pilgrim Fathers**, despairing of freedom of religion in England, emigrate to America, and found **New England**.

They were originally refugees from Nottinghamshire, who spent eleven years in Holland, and emigrated to America to prevent their being lost among the Dutch by intermarriage.

1621. The Commons punish Bacon (Viscount St. Albans and Chancellor) for taking bribes.

He was heavily fined and imprisoned; but James remitted the fine, and released the Chancellor in two days. Bacon retired from the Court, and died in 1626.

1621. The Commons ask the King not to marry his son to the daughter of the King of Spain. James refuses to promise, and threatens the spokesmen with the Tower. The Commons then resolve "That a free Parliament is the ancient and undoubted birth-right of the people of England." James with his own hand tears this resolution out of the Journals of the House, and dissolves the Parliament. Several of the leading members of the House of Commons are sent to prison.

1623. Prince Charles and the Duke of Buckingham visit Madrid in disguise, to see the Infanta.

The marriage did not take place, and the result was hailed with joy in England.

1624. The King summons a Parliament, and war is declared against Spain. The Commons eagerly vote £300,000 for its prosecution.

1625. James dies of ague and gout, aged 59.

CHARLES I. 1625 to 1649 A.D.—24 years.*Son of James I. Married Henrietta-Maria of France.*

- 1625.** Charles's First Parliament meets, and grants him tonnage and poundage for one year only, instead of for life. The King suddenly dissolves the Parliament.
- 1626.** Charles's Second Parliament meets. The Commons refuse a supply till Buckingham is dismissed. The King dissolves Parliament, and raises money by forced Loans.
- 1627.** Buckingham leads an expedition to La Rochelle, in aid of the French Protestants.
It failed, and Buckingham returned in disgrace.
- 1628.** Charles is forced to call his Third Parliament. The Commons draw up **THE PETITION OF RIGHT**, and attack Buckingham. To save him, the King consents to the Petition.
This Petition demanded, as rights and liberties of the people, established by law, their freedom from—(1) taxation without the consent of Parliament, (2) punishment for refusing to pay such taxes, (3) billeting of soldiers on private persons, (4) martial law in time of peace.
- 1628.** Buckingham, preparing to start again for La Rochelle, is murdered at Portsmouth by John Felton, a lieutenant in the navy.
- 1629.** The Commons, on the motion of Sir John Eliot, declare that any minister who levies taxes without consent of Parliament is an enemy of his country. The Speaker (Finch) tries to close Parliament for a time, but is forcibly held in the chair, till the House has voted. The Parliament is dissolved, and nine of its leading members, including Eliot, are thrown into prison.
Eliot died in prison. The King ruled without a Parliament for the next eleven years.
- 1630.** Many hundreds of Puritans emigrate to New England.
- 1631.** Bishop Laud introduces changes in the Church.
- 1631.** Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, puts in practice his policy of Thorough tyranny.
- 1633.** Charles, with Bishop Laud, visits Scotland. He is crowned at Edinburgh, June 18. Laud's attempt to impose Episcopacy on Scotland is resisted by the Scottish Parliament.
- 1633.** Laud is made Archbishop of Canterbury. Many men are punished by the Court of High Commission for their religious opinions.
- 1634.** The tax called ship-money is revived.
- 1637.** John Hampden is tried for refusing to pay ship-money. The majority of the judges—creatures of the King—declare the tax legal.
- 1637.** The Scottish Church repudiates Laud's Prayer-book.
- 1638.** The National Covenant against changes in religion is signed by thousands in Scotland.

1639. The Scots take arms and march towards England under General Alexander Leslie. Charles makes peace with the Scots.
1640. The government is entirely in the hands of Strafford and Laud.
1640. Charles calls his **Fourth Parliament**—the **Short**. The Commons demand the redress of grievances. In three weeks the Parliament is dissolved. The King then calls a **Great Council of Peers** at York. They advise him to summon another Parliament.
1640. Charles calls his **Fifth Parliament**—**THE LONG PARLIAMENT**. The Long Parliament lasted nineteen years.
1641. The Commons reverse the tyrannical acts of the last eleven years; abolish the Star Chamber Court, the Court of High Commission; pass the Triennial Bill, requiring a new Parliament to be assembled every three years; and resolve that that Parliament shall not be dissolved but by its own consent. Laud and Strafford are thrown into prison. Strafford is beheaded.
1641. The Irish Roman Catholics rebel, and massacre 50,000 English Protestant settlers. The Commons, amid great excitement, pass the **Grand Remonstrance** by a majority of 11.
1642. Charles goes to the House of Commons with a body-guard to arrest **Five Members** whom he dislikes. On his approach they withdraw, and the King retires.
1642. The Queen flees to Holland. Parliament passes a **Militia Bill**. The King refuses his assent, and retires to York, January 10.
1642. Charles appears before Hull. The governor refuses to open the gates.
1642. Charles raises the Royal Standard at Nottingham. The Earl of Essex musters the Parliamentary army at Northampton.
1642. Charles is met by Essex at **EDGEHILL** (Warwickshire, 72 miles from London). The battle is indecisive, but is rather favourable to the King. Charles fortifies Oxford for the winter.
1643. Rupert defeats the Parliamentary horse under Hampden at **Chalgrove Field** (Oxfordshire, 15 miles south-east of Oxford), June 18. Hampden is mortally wounded, and dies on the 24th. The Royalists are defeated at Newbury.
1643. The **Westminster Assembly** of Divines begins its sittings in Henry the Seventh's Chapel.
1643. The Parliaments of England and Scotland sign the **Solemn League and Covenant**, September.
1644. A Scottish army of 20,000 men enters England under the **Earl of Leven** (Alexander Leslie).
1644. Charles defeats Waller at **Cropredy Bridge** (Oxford).
1644. The Parliamentary army defeats that of the King at **MARSTON MOOR** (4 or 5 miles west of York), July.

The Parliamentary leaders were Manchester, Fairfax, and Leven; but the victory was mainly due to Cromwell's brigade of Ironsides. The Royalist leaders were Newcastle and Rupert.

1644. A second battle is fought at Newbury, in which the King is defeated.

1644. The Marquis of Montrose, with a body of Highlanders and Irishmen, overruns Scotland.

From this time forth two parties were apparent in Parliament—the Presbyterians, or Moderate men; and the Independents, or Root-and-branch men. Of the latter, Cromwell was the leader.

1645. Archbishop Laud is executed for high treason, January.

1645. The Lords pass the Self-denying Ordinance, excluding members of Parliament from the army.

Sir Thomas Fairfax was appointed Commander-in-chief. Cromwell was allowed to remain with the army.

1645. Cromwell and Fairfax utterly rout the Royalists under Charles and Rupert at NASEBY (Northamptonshire), June.

The victory was entirely due to Cromwell's Ironsides.

1645. Montrose is defeated at PHILIPHAUGH (near Selkirk) by General David Leslie, September.

Thereafter Montrose went abroad. After the death of Charles I. he made a fruitless descent on the north of Scotland in behalf of Charles II. He was captured, and was hanged at Edinburgh, 1650.

1645. Rupert surrenders Bristol to the Parliament.

1646. Charles surrenders to the Scottish army under the Earl of Leven, at NEWARK (Nottinghamshire), May 6.

1647. Charles having refused to sign the Covenant, is, by his own desire, transferred to the Parliament.

It has been said that the Scots sold the King to the Parliament. This is incorrect. The money which they received was pay due to them for military services rendered to the Parliament, and had nothing to do with the giving up of the King. The two transactions were quite distinct, though they were completed at the same time.

1647. The King is seized by Cornet Joyce, and carried to the army at Newmarket. Parliament yields to the army, which enters London. Charles is lodged at Hampton Court (15 miles west of London).

The Presbyterians, headed by Hollis, formed the majority in Parliament; but the Independents, headed by Cromwell, had entire command of the army.

1647. The King escapes from Hampton Court to the Isle of Wight; again surrenders, and is committed to Carisbrooke Castle.

1648. The Scots send an army into England, under the Duke of Hamilton, to rescue and restore the King. Hamilton is defeated by Cromwell at Preston (Lancashire).

Cromwell marched to Edinburgh, and remodelled the government there.

1648. Colonel Pride surrounds the House of Parliament with troops, and excludes the Presbyterian members. This is called **Pride's Purge**. Those admitted—the Rump—are about fifty Independent members. The King is transferred to **Windsor Castle**.
1649. Parliament (the Rump) resolves on the trial of the King, and appoints a **High Court of Justice**, consisting of 135 Commissioners. The trial opens, January 20. On the 27th he is condemned to die. On the 30th he is executed outside one of the windows of the Banqueting House at Whitehall.
1649. The House of Lords is abolished. The government is intrusted to a **Council of State** of 41 members. Cromwell is real ruler.
1649. The **Scottish Parliament** proclaims Charles II. on condition of his observing the Covenant.
1649. Charles II. is proclaimed in Ireland. Cromwell is appointed **Lord Lieutenant of Ireland**, and reduces it.
1650. Charles II. lands in Scotland, having agreed to sign the Covenant. Cromwell marches northwards, and defeats General David Leslie at **DUNBAR**, September 3.
1651. The Scots crown young Charles at **Scone** (near Perth). Charles at the head of the Scottish army marches into England. Cromwell follows, and defeats the Royalists decisively at **WORCESTER**, September 3.
- Charles escaped from the field, and after wandering for weeks in disguise, reached Shoreham in Sussex, whence he sailed for Normandy. Soon afterwards Monk took Dundee, Aberdeen, and Inverness.
1651. Parliament passes the **Navigation Act**, prohibiting any but English ships from trading with England. This leads to a **Dutch War**. Martin Tromp, De Witt, and De Ruyter were the Dutch admirals; the English admirals were Blake, Monk, and Penn. The decisive battle was fought off the island of **Texel** (July 31, 1653), when Tromp was killed.
1653. Cromwell dismisses the remnant of the Long Parliament—the Rump. He calls the Little Parliament—or Barbone's Parliament—which draws up the "Instrument of Government," making Cromwell **Lord Protector of the Commonwealth of England, Scotland, and Ireland**.

OLIVER CROMWELL (Lord Protector). 1653 to 1658 A.D.—5 years.

1654. Peace is concluded with Holland, April.
1654. Cromwell's first Parliament meets, and declares the Protectorship elective, September. It is dissolved, January 1655.
1655. Cromwell, seconded by France, compels the Duke of Savoy to restore his Protestant subjects to their homes.
1655. War is declared against Spain. Penn captures **Jamaica**.
1656. Cromwell's second Parliament meets. He excludes 100 Republican members.

- 1657.** Parliament presents to the Protector its **Humble Petition and Advice**, offering him the title of King. He refuses that, but he is to name his successor in the Protectorship.
- 1658.** The English and the French defeat the Spaniards in the Battle of the Dunes (near Dunkirk). Dunkirk surrenders, and is given to the English.
- 1658.** Oliver Cromwell dies (September 3), aged 59.
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RICHARD CROMWELL (Lord Protector). September 1658 to May 1659 A.D.—8 months.

Third son of Oliver Cromwell.

- 1658.** Richard Cromwell is proclaimed Protector by the Council.
- 1659.** Richard resigns his Protectorship.
- 1660.** General Monk enters London with 5,000 men. He declares for a free Parliament. The members excluded in 1648 are readmitted. A new Parliament is appointed to meet; and the **Long Parliament** dissolves itself, March.
- 1660.** The **New Parliament** meets, April 25. The Peers return to their House. It is resolved to recall Charles to the throne. He is proclaimed, May 8; and lands at Dover, May 25. This is called **The Restoration**.
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CHARLES II. 1660 to 1685 A.D.—25 years.

Son of Charles I. Married Catherine of Portugal.

- 1660.** The Parliament grants the King tonnage and poundage for life. Twenty-nine of the regicides are tried; ten of them are executed. The bodies of Cromwell, Ireton, and Bradshaw are taken out of their graves, hanged, and beheaded.
- 1661.** Episcopacy is restored. The Solemn League and Covenant is burned by the hangman. The Corporation Act is passed.
This Act required that all magistrates, and other members of corporations, should take the Communion according to the rites of the Church of England, and swear that it was unlawful in any case to bear arms against the King.
- 1661.** The Marquis of Argyle, the leader of the Covenanters, is executed at Edinburgh.
- 1662.** The Act of Uniformity is passed.
This Act required that no one should hold a living in the Church unless he received ordination from a bishop, and took the oath of non-resistance to the King. In consequence, nearly two thousand clergymen left their livings. A similar policy in Scotland led to field meetings or **conventicles** being held.
- 1662.** Dunkirk is sold to the French King for £500,000.

- 1664.** The Act for **Triennial Parliaments** is repealed. The **Conventicle Act** is passed.

This Act punished the attendance at Nonconformist services of all persons above 16 years of age.

- 1665.** War is declared against Holland, February. The Duke of York (the King's brother) and Prince Rupert gain a great naval victory over Admiral Opdam off Lowestoft, June.

- 1665.** The **Five Mile Act** is passed.

This Act prohibited ministers who had refused to take the oath of non-resistance from going within five miles of any corporate town, and from acting as schoolmasters—penalty, a fine of £40 and six months in prison. The Corporation, Uniformity, Conventicle, and Five Mile Acts are generally known as the **Clarendon Code**.

- 1665.** London is visited by **THE PLAGUE**: over 100,000 persons are carried off by it in the course of the year.

- 1666.** Louis XIV. of France aids the Dutch, and declares war against England. In a series of great sea-fights off the **NORTH FORELAND** (June 1-4), the advantage remains with the Dutch; but they are completely defeated on July 25.

- 1666.** London is almost totally destroyed by a **GREAT FIRE**, which rages for three days and three nights.

It destroyed 400 streets and 13,000 houses: total loss estimated at £7,000,000; but only 8 lives were lost.

- 1667.** De Ruyter sails up the Medway and the Thames, and destroys several ships of war. Peace is concluded at Breda, July.

- 1667.** Lord Clarendon is deprived of the seals of office, impeached by the Commons, and banished by the King.

The members of the new government were Clifford, Arlington, Buckingham, Ashley, and Lauderdale. Their initials make the word **Cabal**,—the name applied to their government. The word had before this been used as the name of a secret committee.

- 1668.** England, Holland, and Sweden form the **Triple Alliance** against Louis XIV. of France.

- 1670.** Charles concludes with Louis XIV. a **Secret Treaty at Dover**.

By this shameful treaty Charles agreed—(1) to declare himself a Roman Catholic; (2) to aid Louis in his designs on Holland and Spain. Louis agreed to pay Charles a pension of £120,000 a year, and to send him 6,000 men in case of opposition in England.

- 1672.** Charles closes the Exchequer, seizing £1,300,000, deposited there by London merchants and bankers, January. The King issues a **Declaration of Indulgence** to Nonconformists,—Protestant and Roman Catholic. War is declared against Holland, March. There is a desperate sea-fight between De Ruyter and the Duke of York in **Southwold Bay** (Suffolk).

- 1673.** Parliament objects to the Declaration of Indulgence, and passes the **Test Act**.

This Act required all persons holding any public office to declare that the King was the head of both Church and State, and to receive the Communion in the Church of England.

- 1673.** The Cabal Ministry comes to an end, and Sir Thomas Osborne (afterwards Earl of Danby) becomes Lord Treasurer.

- 1674.** Charles concludes peace with Holland.

He did so, much against his will, in consequence of the unpopularity of the war in England.

- 1676.** Charles makes a second treaty with the French King.

- 1677.** William of Orange, Stadtholder of Holland, marries Mary, daughter of the Duke of York.

- 1678.** Titus Oates reveals his pretended Popish Plot. He receives apartments in Whitehall, and £1,200 a year.

Parliament believed in the plot, and many innocent persons were put to death for it.

- 1678.** The Commons impeach Danby, but the Lords refuse to commit him, and Charles dissolves the Parliament (January 1679), which had sat for eighteen years.

A letter had been discovered in which Danby craved the French King for money for Charles.

- 1679.** A new Parliament meets. Danby is again impeached, and is sent to the Tower. Sir William Temple and the Earl of Shaftesbury become the King's chief advisers.

- 1679.** The **Habeas Corpus Act** is passed, "for the better securing the liberty of the subject."

The Act takes its name from the opening words of the writ addressed by the judge to the jailer, requiring him to produce the prisoner for trial within a certain time—*Habeas corpus ad faciendum, subiciendum, et recipiendum*, etc. "Thou art to produce the body, to do, submit, and receive what the court shall order," etc.

- 1679.** A Bill to exclude the Duke of York from the throne passes the Commons; the King dissolves Parliament.

- 1679.** Archbishop Sharpe is murdered on Magus Moor (Fife) by a band of Presbyterians. The Covenanters defeat Claverhouse at Drumclog (Lanarkshire). They are defeated by the Duke of Monmouth at Bothwell Bridge (Lanarkshire).

- 1679.** Shaftesbury is dismissed from the Council. Temple resigns. The King summons a new Parliament. The majority is against the Court.

In this year the names Whig and Tory came into use. The Whigs, or Country party, represented the Roundheads of the Civil War; the Tories, or Court party, were the successors of the Cavaliers.

- 1680.** The **Exclusion Bill** passes the Commons. It is thrown out in the Lords by 63 to 33.
- 1681.** A new Parliament takes up the Exclusion Bill again; but Charles dissolves it in a week, and rules as an absolute monarch during the rest of his reign.
- 1681.** The Duke of York, Lauderdale's successor in Scotland, encourages the persecution and torture of the Covenanters.
- 1683.** Lord William Russell, Algernon Sidney, and others, conspire to place the Duke of Monmouth on the throne, at Charles's death. Another plot—the **Rye House Plot**—is formed to kill the King. The two plots are treated as one; Russell and Sidney are executed, and Monmouth is banished.
- 1685.** Charles II. dies of apoplexy (February 6). In his last illness he declares himself to have been a Roman Catholic.

JAMES II. 1685 to 1688 A.D.—3 years.

Son of Charles I. Married—(1) Anne Hyde, daughter of Earl of Clarendon; (2) Mary d'Este of Modena.

- 1685.** The King attends Mass in public.
- 1685.** The **Earl of Argyll** lands in Cantire; raises 2,000 men for Monmouth. He is captured, and is beheaded at Edinburgh. Monmouth lands at Lyme Regis (Dorset). He is defeated at Sedgemoor (Somerset). Is captured and sent to London. He is executed, July 15. Judge Jeffreys makes his **Bloody Circuit** in the west, to punish the rebels.
- 1685.** About 50,000 French Protestants settle in England, in consequence of the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes by Louis XIV. Half a million of Protestants left France. Those who settled in England planted there the silk manufacture and other arts.
- 1685.** The King proposes to allow Roman Catholic officers to remain in the army. Parliament objects, and is dissolved.
- 1686.** James issues a new Ecclesiastical Commission, appointing Roman Catholics as heads of colleges in Oxford and Cambridge.
- 1687.** James publishes a Declaration of Indulgence.
- 1688.** A second Declaration of Indulgence is ordered to be read in all churches. The Primate (Sancroft) and six bishops petition to be excused from reading it. They are tried for sedition, and are acquitted, amid public rejoicings, June 30. The chief nobles and statesmen invite William, Prince of Orange, to be their champion. He lands at Torbay. James escapes to France.
- 1688.** William reaches Whitehall, and calls a Convention of the Estates. Judge Jeffreys is imprisoned in the Tower, where he dies.

1689. The Convention draws up the DECLARATION OF RIGHT. William and Mary are proclaimed, February 13.

The Declaration of Right was afterwards confirmed and extended in the Bill of Rights. It determined all the points disputed between the Stewart Kings and the Parliament.

WILLIAM III. and MARY II. 1689 to 1694 A.D.—5 years.

William, son of William of Nassau, Prince of Orange, and of Mary Stewart, daughter of Charles I. Married Mary Stewart, daughter of James II.

1689. The Commons assume the right of distributing the supplies,—half for public expenses, half for the civil list. The Mutiny Act is passed.

The Mutiny Act places soldiers under martial law. It has to be renewed annually, and this renders it necessary that Parliament should meet every year.

1689. Presbyterianism is re-established in Scotland. Viscount Dundee (Graham of Claverhouse) defeats the Royalists at KILLIECRANKIE (Perthshire), but is slain, and his army melts away.

1689. James besieges Londonderry, which makes a heroic resistance under Rev. George Walker. It is relieved, July 30.

1689. The Toleration Act is passed, May.

By this Act, penalties for absence from the Established Church and for attending conventicles (field meetings) were abolished.

1689. The BILL OF RIGHTS is passed.

This statute gives Parliament absolute power over taxation, over the army, over law courts, and over the succession to the crown itself.

1690. William defeats James in the BATTLE OF THE BOYNE. James returns to France.

1691. Limerick surrenders, and peace is concluded.

1692. The Macdonalds of Glencoe are cruelly massacred.

It was falsely represented to William that Macdonald of Glencoe had not taken the oath of allegiance. His oath, however, though offered late, had been accepted by the sheriff on the ground that storms had caused the delay. Nevertheless orders were secretly given for the military execution of the whole clan: 120 perished, but 150 escaped through the mountain passes.

1692. The English and Dutch fleets defeat that of France off CAPE LA HOGUE, May.

1693. The National Debt begins.

1694. The Bank of England is founded.

1694. Parliament passes the Bill for Triennial Parliaments (see 1716); and establishes the Freedom of the Press.

1694. Queen Mary dies of small-pox, December 28.

WILLIAM III. (alone), 1694 to 1702 A.D.—8 years.

- 1695.** William takes NAMUR (Belgium).
- 1697.** The Treaty of Ryswick (Holland) is signed by England, France, Spain, Holland, and Germany.
Louis XIV. gave up most of his conquests, and acknowledged William as King of Great Britain and Ireland.
- 1698.** William and Louis sign a Secret Treaty for the partition of the Spanish dominions on the death of Charles II.
- 1698.** A new Parliament meets. Charles Montague (afterwards Lord Halifax) is made First Lord of the Treasury.
- 1698.** In this and the following year three expeditions sail from Scotland to Darien, for the purpose of colonizing the isthmus.
The scheme was a complete failure. The settlements were surrendered to the Spaniards in 1700.
- 1701.** A new Parliament meets, and passes the **ACT OF SETTLEMENT**.
Its most important provisions were—(1) that, after Anne, the succession should lie with the Princess Sophia of Hanover and her heirs, being Protestants of the Church of England; (2) that judges should hold office for life, or good conduct, at fixed salaries; (3) that the Sovereign should not leave the kingdom without the consent of Parliament. The last provision was repealed at the beginning of the reign of George III.
- 1701.** William forms the **GRAND ALLIANCE**, of England, Holland, and Germany, to frustrate Louis's designs on Spain.
Louis had induced Charles II. of Spain to make a will in favour of his grandson, who became Philip V. The allies supported the Archduke as Charles III. The War of the Spanish Succession followed.
- 1701.** James II. dies at St. Germain.
- 1702.** William, riding from Kensington to Hampton Court, is thrown from his horse and has his collar-bone broken. He dies after a fortnight's illness, March 8.

ANNE. 1702 to 1714 A.D.—12 years.

- Second Daughter of James II. Married Prince George of Denmark.*
- 1702.** The War of the Spanish Succession begins. Marlborough is made Captain-General of the Allied Forces.
- 1702.** Robert Harley (afterwards Earl of Oxford), a Tory, is chosen Speaker of Anne's first Parliament.
The Whigs were more numerous in the House of Lords at this time, the Tories in the House of Commons.
- 1703.** The Commons try to coerce the Scots into making the same settlement of the succession as in England.
In 1704 the Scottish Parliament passed an **Act of Security**, providing that the same Sovereign should not rule over both countries unless the independence of Scotland and her commercial equality with England were secured.

1704. Marlborough and Prince Eugene of Savoy defeat the French and the Bavarians at **BLENHEIM** (Bavaria), August.

The French marshal, Tallard, was among the prisoners. Marlborough received a gift of Woodstock, and of Blenheim House built on it.

1704. Gibraltar is taken by Sir George Rooke.

It has remained in the hands of the British ever since.

1706. Marlborough defeats Villeroi at **RAMILLIES** (Belgium).

1707. The **ACT OF UNION** between England and Scotland is passed.

The chief terms of the Treaty of Union were—(1) that the Electress Sophia of Hanover and her heirs, being Protestants, should succeed to the united crown; (2) that Scotland should be represented in the Imperial Parliament by 16 elective Peers and 45 Commoners (the number of Commoners is now 72); (3) that all English ports and colonies should be open to Scottish traders; (4) that public laws should be the same for both countries, but that Scottish laws relating to property and private rights should remain unchanged, except for the good of the Scottish people; (5) that the Court of Session and other Scottish tribunals should remain unchanged; (6) that the Church of Scotland as established by law should be maintained.

1708. Marlborough gains the brilliant victory of **OUDENARDE** (Belgium) over Marshal Vendôme. Marlborough and the Whig Junto drive Harley and St. John from office.

Harley was displaced by Robert Walpole.

1709. Marlborough defeats Villars at **MALPLAQUET** (Flanders).

In the "deluge of blood" at Malplaquet, the victors lost 24,000 men, the defeated only half that number.

1710. Dr. Sacheverell, for preaching non-resistance, is condemned to silence for three years.

1710. The **Act against occasional Conformity** is passed.

It prohibited Dissenters from taking the sacramental test merely to qualify for office. It was repealed in 1718.

1711. The Ministry opens negotiations for peace with the French Government. Marlborough is charged with taking Government money for his own use, and is deprived of all his offices.

Marlborough retired to Blenheim Park, then to the Continent. He returned on the death of the Queen, and was restored to his post of Captain-General. He died in 1722, and was buried in Westminster Abbey.

1712. Peace negotiations open at **Utrecht** (Holland), January. The Whig or war majority in the House of Lords is swamped by the creation of twelve Peers.

1713. THE **TREATY OF Utrecht** is signed by France, Britain, and all the allies, except the Emperor, March 31.

It provided that the French and Spanish crowns should never be united, and that Louis should recognize the Protestant succession in Britain, and expel the Pretender from France. The Emperor made a separate peace with France at Rastadt in 1714.

- 1713.** A motion to dissolve the Union with Scotland is lost in the House of Lords by a majority of 4.
- 1714.** The Princess Sophia dies, and **George Louis**, her son, becomes heir-apparent. Queen Anne dies, August 1.
Queen Anne had lost all her children before she came to the throne. Her husband died in 1708.

GEORGE I. 1714 to 1727 A.D.—13 years.

FIRST KING OF THE HOUSE OF BRUNSWICK.

Son of the Electress Sophia, and great-grandson of James I. Married Sophia-Dorothea of Zell.

- 1714.** King George, aged 54, lands in England, and leaves the government for the most part in the hands of his ministers.
- 1715.** Bolingbroke (St. John) flees to France, and becomes the Pretender's chief adviser.
- 1715.** The **FIRST JACOBITE REBELLION** takes place.
The Jacobites, under Mar, were met by Argyle at **Sheriffmuir** (Perthshire), and were forced to retreat, November 13. James, the Pretender, landed at Peterhead, December 22. He and Mar abandoned the army at Montrose, February 4, 1716, and sailed for France. About thirty English Jacobites, who took part in a rising near Preston, were executed.
- 1716.** The Whigs pass the **Septennial Act**, extending the possible duration of Parliaments to 7 years.
- 1718.** The **Quadruple Alliance** (Britain, France, Holland, and Germany) is formed against Spain. Admiral Byng defeats the Spaniards off **Cape Passaro**.
- 1719.** The Pretender goes to Madrid. A fleet ready to convey him to Britain is shattered by a storm.
- 1720.** Philip of Spain makes peace with the Allies.
- 1720.** The **SOUTH SEA BUBBLE** bursts, and ruins thousands.
The South Sea Company was formed by Harley in 1710 for trading purposes. In 1719 Government was anxious to lessen the National Debt, then £53,000,000, which, at 6 per cent., involved an annual payment of £3,180,000. The company took over annuities amounting to £800,000, paid the Government £7,500,000, and obtained a monopoly of trade. Annuitants were paid off, not in cash, but in South Sea stock. Exaggerated and lying statements sent up the price from £100 to £1,000. The proceedings of the company against companies started in imitation of itself brought suspicion on its own soundness. Shares rapidly fell, and wide-spread ruin followed.
- 1721.** Sir Robert Walpole becomes Chancellor of the Exchequer and Premier.
Walpole remained at the head of affairs for the next twenty years.
- 1722.** Bishop Atterbury's Jacobite plot is frustrated.

- 1724.** The issue of Wood's halfpence excites disturbances in Ireland. Swift writes the *Drapier Letters* against the coinage. Wood's contract is cancelled, and he receives a pension of £3,000.
- 1725.** The *Treaty of Vienna*, in which Spain, the Empire, and Russia combine against Britain and France, leads to the *Treaty of Hanover*, in which Britain, France, and Prussia, and afterwards Sweden and Holland, join.
- 1727.** The Spaniards unsuccessfully attack Gibraltar. King George, travelling in Hanover, dies of apoplexy in his carriage; aged 67.

GEORGE II. 1727 to 1760 A.D.—33 years.*Son of George I. Married Caroline of Anspach.*

- 1727.** Walpole continues chief minister of the Crown.
He owed his continuance in office to the influence of Queen Caroline, who was all her life a firm supporter of Walpole.
- 1730.** Religious revivals are started by Wesley and Whitefield.
- 1733.** Walpole introduces his *Scheme of Excise*, making wine and tobacco liable to Excise duties. It is furiously opposed, and has to be withdrawn.
- 1735.** William Pitt (afterwards Earl of Chatham) enters Parliament and joins the Opposition against Walpole.
- 1736.** A riot, called the *Porteous Mob*, takes place in Edinburgh. Government proposes to deprive the city of its charter. The spirited resistance of the Scottish members prevents this.
Captain Porteous, for ordering the city guard to fire on an unruly crowd at the execution of a smuggler, was convicted, but was reprieved. The mob broke into the prison, seized Porteous, and hanged him from a dyer's pole.
- 1737.** The King quarrels with Frederick, Prince of Wales, who is ordered to quit the Court. Queen Caroline dies.
The death of the Queen was a serious blow to Walpole's influence.
- 1738.** John Wesley, having separated from the Church of England, founds the body of *Wesleyan Methodists*.
- 1739.** Walpole is unwillingly drawn into a war with Spain, October. Admiral Vernon takes *Portobello* (Isthmus of Darien).
- 1740.** The *War of the Austrian Succession* begins, on the death of the Emperor Charles VI.
Charles had made his daughter, Maria-Theresa, heir to his dominions; but parts of them were seized by Prussia and the Elector of Bavaria. The French supported the Elector and Prussia. Britain helped Maria-Theresa.
- 1742.** Walpole resigns, after being Prime Minister for twenty years. He is made *Earl of Orford*.
- 1743.** King George defeats the French and Bavarians at *DETTINGEN* on the Main (Bavaria).
This was the last battle in which a British King fought in person.

1744. Anson completes his *voyage round the world*, begun in 1740.
1745. The Earl of Orford dies.

1745. Britain makes peace with Prussia. The British, Dutch, and Austrians are defeated by the French at **FONTENOY** (Belgium). Francis, Duke of Lorraine, husband of Maria-Theresa, is elected Emperor as **Francis I**.

1745. The **SECOND JACOBITE REBELLION**, on behalf of **Charles Edward**, son of the Old Pretender, begins in Scotland.

Charles Edward defeated Sir John Cope at **PRESTONPANS** (Haddingtonshire); marched to **Derby**; retreated; defeated the Royal forces at **FALKIRK**, January 1746; was completely defeated by the Duke of Cumberland at **CULLODEN MOOR**, April; escaped to France, September. He died in 1788.

1748. The **PEACE OF AIX-LA-CHAPELLE** puts an end to the Continental War, October.

The only gainer by the war was the King of Prussia, who obtained Silesia. The French undertook to expel the Pretender from France.

1751. An Act is passed for the **Correction of the Calendar**, and the **New Style of Reckoning** is introduced.

As each year since the Christian era had been reckoned 11 minutes too long, the error amounted to 11 days. To make up for this excess, 11 days were dropped out of the year 1752—September 3rd being called September 14th. At the same time the year was made to begin on January 1st instead of March 25th.

1751. Frederick, Prince of Wales, dies. His son George, aged 12, succeeds him.

1754. Henry Pelham dies, and is succeeded by his brother, the **Duke of Newcastle**.

1756. The French recover **Minorca** (held by Britain since 1708). Admiral Byng, after being within sight of the garrison, retreats to Gibraltar without making any effort at relief, May.

To stop the popular outcry against the Ministry, Byng was shot (March 1757).

1756. The **SEVEN YEARS' WAR** begins,—Britain and Prussia against France, Austria, Russia, Poland, Sweden, and Saxony.

The ambition of Frederick of Prussia suggested to Austria the necessity of a coalition against him. Britain's share in the war was determined by her colonial disputes with France.

1756. Sujah-ad-Dowlah seizes **Calcutta**, and shuts up 146 British residents in a cellar (**the Black Hole**); only 23 come out alive next morning.

1757. Pitt and Newcastle form a Ministry.

Several attempts were made to form a Ministry without Pitt, who was disliked by the King; but they all failed, and the King had to yield.

1757. Clive, having retaken Calcutta, defeats Sujah-ad-Dowlah at PLASSEY (Bengal), June 23.

This victory not only avenged the victims of the Black Hole; it also laid the foundation of the British Empire in India.

1757. Frederick of Prussia defeats the French and the Imperialists at ROSSBACH (Saxony).

This victory was the turning-point in Frederick's career, and the starting-point in the progress which has made Prussia the first power on the continent of Europe.

1759. General Wolfe defeats the French under Montcalm on the HEIGHTS OF ABRAHAM; three days later, Quebec surrenders. Admiral Hawke gains a splendid victory over the Brest fleet at Quiberon Bay (Brittany).

1759. The French are defeated at Minden, in Germany.

1760. George II. dies, aged 77.

GEORGE III. 1760 to 1820 A.D.—60 years.

*Son of Frederick, Prince of Wales, and grandson of George II.
Married Charlotte of Mecklenburg-Strelitz.*

1761. Sir Eyre Coote takes Pondicherry (near Madras).

This was a fatal blow to French power in India.

1761. The Bourbon sovereigns of France, Spain, and Naples form the Family Compact against Britain. Pitt advises declaration of war with Spain. His advice is rejected, and he resigns.

1762. The Earl of Buté becomes Premier. Spain declares war against Britain.

1763. The War of the Family Compact is ended by the Peace of Paris. The peace is denounced by Pitt. Bute is succeeded by George Grenville.

1763. The Seven Years' War is terminated by the Peace of Hubertsburg (Saxony).

1763. John Wilkes, member for Aylesbury, is sent to the Tower for stating in his newspaper, *The North Briton*, that the King had told a lie.

1765. Clive returns to India as Governor of Bengal.

1765. The American Stamp Act is proposed by Grenville, and passed. The colonists refuse to be taxed. Grenville is succeeded by the Marquis of Rockingham.

1766. The Stamp Act is repealed. Rockingham resigns, and is succeeded by Pitt (now Earl of Chatham) and the Duke of Grafton.

1766. James Stewart, the Old Pretender, dies.

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1767. A tax is placed on tea, glass, paper, and painters' colours in America.

Pitt was unwell at the time. The new taxes revived the discontent in the colonies.

1768. Chatham resigns. The Duke of Grafton continues in the Ministry.

1769. Great riots take place in Boston : the troops fire on the rioters.

1770. Grafton resigns, and **Lord North** becomes Premier. Lord North remits all the American taxes except that on tea.

1770. The publishers of the "Letters" of Junius are tried and acquitted.

1773. Warren Hastings is first Governor-General of India.

1773. When ships with **taxed tea** arrive at **Boston**, a body of men dressed like Indians board the ships and throw the tea into the harbour.

1774. The colonists hold their **First Congress** at Philadelphia ; draw up a **Declaration of Rights**; and suspend trade with Britain.

1774. Lord Clive dies by his own hand.

1774. Wilkes is made Lord Mayor of London.

1775. At **LEXINGTON** (11 miles from Boston) the first battle of the **American War of Independence** takes place. **George Washington** (born 1732) is appointed commander-in-chief of the colonial army. In the Battle of **BUNKER HILL** (outside Boston) the colonists are defeated, but with great loss to the British.

1775. The Americans invade Canada and take Montreal.

1776. General Howe is forced to evacuate Boston.

1776. Congress at Philadelphia draws up **The Declaration of Independence** of the United States of North America, July 4. Howe occupies New York (August).

1777. The French send men and money to the Americans. Howe is victorious at **BRANDYWINE RIVER**, and takes Philadelphia. General Burgoyne is forced to surrender at **SARATOGA** (144 miles north of New York).

This was the turning-point in the struggle. Henceforth the Americans were successful.

1778. The **Earl of Chatham** is seized with a fit while addressing the House of Lords, and dies five weeks afterwards.

1779. Spain joins France against Britain. The great **Siege of Gibraltar** begins.

The siege lasted from July 16, 1779, till January 20, 1783. The final attack was made in September 1782: the repulse of the besiegers was complete.

1780. The **Gordon No-Popery Riots** take place in London. Chapels are destroyed. Jails are stormed and the prisoners set free.

The cause of the riots was the repeal of certain penal laws against Roman Catholics. Lord George Gordon was sent to the Tower, but was acquitted ; twenty-one of the rioters were executed.

1780. Hyder Ali, King of Mysore (Southern India), overruns Madras, and the War in the Carnatic begins.

Hyder was signally defeated. He died in 1782, and the war was continued at intervals by his son Tippoo Saib, who was slain in the storming of Seringapatam, 1799.

1780. Sir Henry Clinton takes Charleston.

1781. Lord Cornwallis is forced to surrender at YORKTOWN (Virginia); and the war in America is virtually at an end.

1782. The Marquis of Rockingham becomes Premier, with Lord Shelburne and Fox as Secretaries of State. Rockingham dies in July, and Shelburne becomes Premier, with William Pitt (second son of Lord Chatham) as Chancellor of the Exchequer. Fox resigns.

1782. Preliminaries of peace are signed at Paris, and the Independence of the United States is recognized.

1783. William Pitt (aged 24) becomes Premier and Chancellor of the Exchequer.

1783. The TREATY OF VERSAILLES is concluded by Britain, America, France, and Spain; and the United States are declared free. George Washington becomes the first President.

1784. Pitt carries his India Bill, erecting the Board of Control.

This Board had supreme control over the government of India and the affairs of the East India Company.

1785. Lord Cornwallis becomes Governor-General of India.

1787. Pitt concludes a Commercial Treaty with France, greatly reducing duties on imports.

1788. The trial of Warren Hastings begins, and continues for nearly eight years. He is found not guilty, but is left penniless.

He was charged with having forced large sums of money from native princes, and with having supported his power by unlawful means. After his acquittal he received a pension from the Company.

1788. William Wilberforce introduces a Bill for the Abolition of the Slave Trade. Pitt ardently supports it, but it is thrown out.

1788. Charles Edward Stewart, the Young Pretender, dies at Rome.

1789. The French Revolution begins.

1791. The Canada Constitutional Act is passed, by which Canada is divided into two provinces, and a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a Representative Assembly are established in each.

1792. France is declared a Republic, and offers to help the British people against their "tyrannical" Government.

1793. Louis XVI. is beheaded. France declares war against Britain and Holland. Toulon (on the Mediterranean) is taken possession of by the British fleet. It is besieged by the Republican troops. The siege is directed by Napoleon Bonaparte, a young officer of artillery; and Toulon is abandoned.

1794. Lord Hood takes **Corsica**. Lord Howe defeats the Brest fleet off **Ushant** (island west of Brittany). The British take most of the French settlements in the East and the West Indies.

At the siege of **Calvi**, in Corsica, Captain Horatio Nelson greatly distinguished himself. He lost by a wound the sight of his right eye.

1795. Holland having submitted to France, a war with Britain follows. Admiral Elphinstone takes the **Cape of Good Hope**.

1795. The Prussians make peace with France. Spain becomes her ally. Britain, Austria, and Russia form a **Coalition against France**.

1796. Spain declares war against Britain.

1797. A mutiny of the seamen at the **Spithead** is easily suppressed. It is followed by a more serious mutiny at the **Nore**. The ring-leader, "rear-admiral" Parker, is hanged.

1797. The Spanish fleet is defeated by Jervis and Nelson off **CAPE ST. VINCENT**, and the invasion of Britain is prevented.

1797. Admiral Duncan defeats the French and Dutch fleets off **CAMPEDOW** (Holland), and prevents the invasion of Ireland.

1798. The **United Irishmen** rebel. The insurgents are defeated at **Vinegar Hill** (near Wexford).

1798. Bonaparte invades Egypt, intending to open up a path to India, and defeats the Egyptians at the Battle of the Pyramids. Admiral Nelson destroys his fleet in **Aboukir Bay—BATTLE OF THE NILE**.

1799. Tippoo Saib is killed at the capture of **Seringapatam**. Mysore is dismembered. (*See* 1780.)

1799. The French retreat from **Acre**.

1800. Malta is taken by the British.

It had been taken from the Knights of St. John by Bonaparte, on his way to Egypt, in 1798. It had been in possession of the Knights since 1530.

1800. A **Northern League** is formed by Russia, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark against Britain.

This league left Britain alone in the struggle with France.

1800. Bonaparte is victorious over the Austrians at **Marengo** and **Hohenlinden**.

1801. The **Legislative Union of Great Britain and Ireland** takes effect.

The Act was passed in 1801. The chief terms of the Union were—(1) 100 Irish members added to the British House of Commons; (2) 28 temporal and 4 spiritual Peers, elected for life, added to the House of Lords; (3) freedom of trade; (4) equality of taxation; (5) a united Church of England and Ireland.

1801. The French are defeated at **Alexandria** by Sir Ralph Abercromby.

1801. Nelson destroys the Danish fleet at COPENHAGEN; and Denmark withdraws from the Northern League. The Emperor of Russia is assassinated, and the League is broken up.
1802. The PEACE OF AMIENS (between Paris and Calais) is signed by Britain, France, Spain, and Holland.
1803. The war with France is renewed. Bonaparte assembles at Boulogne an army for the invasion of Britain.
The war was provoked solely by the ambition of Bonaparte, who, ever since the Peace of Amiens, had been making his preparations.
1803. A Mahratta War, the result of French intrigue, breaks out in India. General Arthur Wellesley is victorious at ASSAYE (north-east of Bombay), and General Lake at Delhi.
1804. Bonaparte becomes Emperor as NAPOLEON I. Spain declares war against Britain.
1805. Napoleon invades Germany. He defeats the Russians and Austrians at AUSTERLITZ (Moravia).
1805. Nelson destroys the fleets of France and Spain at TRAFALGAR (south-west of Spain), but is killed in the action, October 21.
On the eve of the battle he gave his famous last signal: England expects every man to do his duty.
1806. Pitt dies, aged 46, January. Grenville and Fox form a Ministry, called All the Talents.
1806. Fox's resolutions against the slave-trade are adopted by the House of Commons.
The trade was abolished in 1807. Slavery survived in the British colonies till 1833.
1806. Fox dies, aged 57, September.
1806. A new alliance against France is formed by Britain, Russia, Prussia, and Saxony. Napoleon defeats Prussia at JENA (Saxe-Weimar), enters Berlin, and issues the Berlin Decree against British commerce.
This Decree, which began Napoleon's Continental system, declared the British Islands to be in a state of blockade. The British Government retaliated by issuing Orders in Council prohibiting trade with France and her allies (1807).
1807. The Ministry of All the Talents proposes to admit Roman Catholics into the army, and is dismissed. The Duke of Portland (with George Canning as Foreign Secretary) succeeds.
1807. The Treaty of TILISIT is agreed to by the French and Russian Emperors. Russia and Prussia agree to enforce the Berlin Decree. Canning orders the Danish fleet to be seized, to prevent it falling into the hands of Napoleon. Napoleon attacks Portugal for rejecting the Berlin Decree; the Royal Family sails for Brazil.

1808. Napoleon puts his brother Joseph on the throne of Spain. The loyalist party asks help from Britain. Sir Arthur Wellesley defeats General Junot at VIMIERA (30 miles north of Lisbon).

1809. Sir John Moore defeats Marshal Soult at CORUNNA (Galicia); but is killed. Sir Arthur Wellesley assumes the chief command in the Peninsula. He defeats the French at TALAVERA (Toledo).

For this victory he was made Lord Wellington.

1810. The French enter Portugal. Wellington defeats Massena at BUSACO; but greater numbers force him to retire behind the lines of Torres Vedras (24 miles north of Lisbon). Massena retreats towards Spain.

1810. The Burdett Riots cause great excitement in London, and stir the question of Parliamentary reform.

Sir Francis Burdett published a pamphlet, in which he spoke contemptuously of the House of Commons. For this he was committed to the Tower, April. Then followed public meetings in the chief towns. Burdett was liberated in June.

1811. George, Prince of Wales, is installed as Regent, February.

The King, towards the end of 1810, had become insane.

1811. Massena is defeated by Wellington at FUENTES D'ONORO. The French are then driven out of Portugal.

1811. General Graham defeats Marshal Victor at Barrosa (near Cadiz).

1811. Destruction of machinery in factories by rioters begins at Nottingham.

The riots continued till 1818. Many of the rioters were hanged.

1812. Wellington takes CIUDAD RODRIGO, and is made an Earl. He takes BADAJOZ, with the loss of 1,000 men. He defeats Marmont at SALAMANCA (130 miles north-west of Madrid), and is made a Marquis.

1812. Mr. Perceval, the Prime Minister, is shot in the lobby of the House of Commons by Bellingham, a Liverpool shipbroker, who had been ruined by the war. The Earl of Liverpool becomes Premier; Robert Peel, Chief Secretary for Ireland.

1812. Napoleon invades Russia. He reaches Moscow. The Russians set fire to the city, and Napoleon is forced to retreat.

In the return march, the greater part of the French army was destroyed.

1812. The United States declare war against Britain.

The right of search for deserters from the navy, claimed by Britain, had increased the ill feeling of the Americans. The British ministry would yield nothing, and war ensued. An invasion of Canada failed. A fight took place between the Shannon (British) and the Chesapeake (American), when the latter was captured. The Treaty of Ghent (December 1814) put an end to the war without settling the points in dispute.

1813. Wellington gains the Battle of **VITORIA** (Biscay) over the French. The French are driven across the Pyrenees, Wellington following.
1813. The whole Continent is in arms against Napoleon, who is defeated at **LEIPZIG**. Napoleon retreats towards France; the allies follow him.
1814. The allies enter Paris. Napoleon gives up his throne, and is sent to **Elba** (coast of Italy). The **First Treaty of Paris** is signed.
1814. Wellington is made a Duke. He scatters the remnant of Soult's army at **TOULOUSE** (south-west of France). A Congress meets at Vienna to settle the affairs of Europe.
1815. Napoleon leaves Elba and returns to Paris. The allies declare war. Wellington takes command of 80,000 British troops in Belgium. Blücher, with 110,000, marches to join him. Napoleon tries to prevent their junction, and attacks Wellington at **WATERLOO**, June 18, but is utterly and finally defeated. He is sent to **St. Helena**, August 8. The **Second Treaty of Paris** is signed.
- The war had increased the National Debt from 239 million to 860 million pounds. Napoleon died at St. Helena in 1821.
1816. A Corn Act is passed, keeping out grain from abroad till the price of home-grown wheat is eighty shillings per quarter. This led to riots and popular demonstrations in the large towns.
1816. Reform of the Government is demanded. The Ministry, led by Lord Castlereagh, resists all progress.
1817. The Princess Charlotte, daughter of the Regent, and wife of Leopold of Saxe-Coburg—afterwards King of the Belgians—dies.
1818. Workmen set out from Manchester to London, and take with them a blanket each. They are called "Blanketeers."
1819. A meeting at Manchester (attended by 100,000) is dispersed by the military; several are killed, many are wounded.
- The meeting having been held in St. Peter's Fields, the affair was called the "Battle of Peterloo."
1819. Victoria, daughter of the Duke of Kent, is born.
1820. King George III. dies, aged 81.
- His reign of 60 years was the longest of any British sovereign.

GEORGE IV. 1820 to 1830 A.D.—10 years.*Son of George III. Married Caroline of Brunswick.*

1820. The **Cato Street Conspiracy**—a plot to kill the Ministers—is discovered, and the ringleaders are executed. Petitions for free trade begin to pour in. Lord Liverpool introduces in the Lords a Bill against Queen Caroline. She is defended by Henry Brougham and Thomas Denman, and the Bill is given up amid popular rejoicing.

The Queen died in 1821. Riots took place at her funeral.

- 1822.** The King visits Scotland. Lord Castlereagh (now Marquis of Londonderry) commits suicide. Mr. Canning becomes Foreign Secretary.
- 1824.** War is declared against the Burmese, and Rangoon is taken.
- 1824.** Daniel O'Connell forms the Roman Catholic Association for the giving of equal rights to Roman Catholics. It is supported by a Rent levied in Ireland, which yields this year £1,052.
- 1825.** The First Railway (Stockton and Darlington) is opened for passenger traffic.
- 1827.** Lord Liverpool dies. Canning becomes Prime Minister, but dies within four months. Viscount Goderich becomes Premier.
- 1827.** The combined fleets of Britain, France, and Russia destroy the Turkish and Egyptian fleets at Navarino (south-west of the Morea).
- The Greeks had revolted from Turkey in 1820, 1821. In 1827, the three great Powers helped Greece, and her independence was acknowledged in 1829.
- 1828.** Goderich is succeeded by the Duke of Wellington.
- 1828.** The Test and Corporation Acts of Charles the Second's reign are repealed.

This was the first triumph of the power of the people.

- 1829.** Wellington and Peel withdraw their opposition to the Catholic claims, and the Roman Catholic Relief Bill is passed.
- Peel's change of side caused much surprise and indignation among the High Church party, whose champion he had formerly been. This was the second triumph of the power of the people.
- 1829.** Sir Robert Peel introduces Police.
- 1830.** King George IV. dies, aged 68.

WILLIAM IV. 1830 to 1837 A.D.—7 years.

Third son of George III. Married Adelaide of Saxe-Meiningen.

- 1830.** A Second Revolution takes place in France. Belgium separates from the Netherlands, and becomes an independent kingdom.
- 1830.** A new Parliament meets, and Wellington resigns. Earl Grey forms a Whig Ministry.
- 1831.** Lord John Russell introduces a Reform Bill; majority of 1 for first reading. Government dissolves Parliament. Great excitement takes place during the elections. The Reform Bill is rejected in the Lords. Then follow alarming riots. Ireland is disturbed by O'Connell's demand for a Repeal of the Union.

1832. Wellington and about 100 Tory Peers absent themselves from the House of Lords, and the REFORM ACT is passed, June 7. Reform Bills for Scotland and Ireland follow. Parliament is dissolved.

The Reform Act transferred 143 seats from small boroughs to large towns. The franchise was extended to tenants paying £50 of rent in counties, and £10 of rent in boroughs. This was the crowning triumph of the power of the people.

1833. The first Reformed House of Commons meets. A Bill is passed abolishing slavery in all British colonies, and voting £20,000,000 to make up the loss to the slave-owners. William Wilberforce dies soon afterwards.

1834. Lord Grey is succeeded by Viscount Melbourne. Trade Unions become common, and lead to disturbances. A new Poor Law is passed.

1835. The Municipal Reform Act is passed, extending the number of those that elect the town councils.

This was another concession to the power of the people.

1837. King William IV. dies, aged 72.

VICTORIA. 1837 to 1901 A.D.—64 years.

Daughter of Edward, Duke of Kent, fourth son of George III. Married Albert, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

1837. Hanover is separated from Great Britain because it has a law by which no woman can wear the crown.

Ernest, Duke of Cumberland, the Queen's uncle, became King of Hanover. In 1866 Hanover was annexed to Prussia.

1838. The Anti-Corn-Law League is formed, with Richard Cobden and John Bright as its leaders. The Chartist agitation begins.

1839. The Penny Post is established by Rowland Hill. A British army marches into Afghanistan.

1839. In the war between Turkey and Egypt a British fleet storms Acre (Syria), and forces the Pasha of Egypt to withdraw his troops from Syria.

Britain interfered because the war had interrupted the Black Sea trade.

1840. War is declared against China.

Peace was concluded in 1842. Britain gained Hong-kong, and the right to trade with Canton and four other ports.

1840. The Queen is married to her cousin, Albert, Prince of Saxe Coburg-Gotha.

1841. Upper and Lower Canada are united.

1841. In the new Parliament the Conservatives have a majority of 80. Melbourne resigns, and Peel succeeds.

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1841. Several British officers are put to death by the Afghans.
1842. Peel carries his **Sliding-Scale** corn-duty, by which the duty becomes less as the price of corn increases. He also imposes an **Income-Tax** of 7d. per pound, and abolishes many petty customs.
1843. Sir Charles James Napier defeats the Ameer of Sindh at MEEANEE, and takes Hyderabad. Sindh becomes part of British India.
1843. The Rebecca Riots against toll-bars disturb Wales. Every turnpike in South Wales is destroyed.
1843. The agitation in Ireland for the **Repeal of the Union** reaches its height. O'Connell and others are arrested.
1843. A disruption in the Church of Scotland leads to the formation of the **Free Church**.
1845. The First Sikh War breaks out. The attack of the Sikhs on Moodkee is repelled.
1846. The Sikhs are defeated decisively at ALIWAL and SOBRAON. A treaty is signed at Lahore.
1846. The Peel Ministry carries an Act for the total **Repeal of the Corn Laws**. Peel resigns, and Lord John Russell becomes Premier.

This was another great triumph of the power of the people.

1846. During the winter great suffering prevails in Ireland from the failure of the potato crop the previous year.
1847. O'Connell dies at Genoa.
1848. A Third Revolution in France drives Louis-Philippe from the throne.

Louis-Napoleon was voted President of the Republic, and in 1852 Emperor of the French.

1848. The Young Ireland Party attempts an insurrection, in imitation of the French Revolution, but it entirely fails.
1848. The Second Sikh War begins.
1849. Lord Gough defeats the Sikhs at Chillianwalla, but with heavy loss. He completely routs them at GOOJERAT, and the Punjab becomes part of British India.
1850. Sir Robert Peel is thrown from his horse and is killed.
1851. The Great Exhibition of the industry of all nations is held in Hyde Park, London.
1852. The Russell Ministry is defeated and resigns. The Earl of Derby's first Ministry is formed. The Duke of Wellington dies at Walmer Castle, aged 83, and is buried in St. Paul's. The Derby Ministry is defeated, and resigns. Lord Aberdeen forms a Ministry, including Whigs, Peelites, and Radicals.

1852. A second Burmese War ends in Pegu being added to British India.

1854. Britain and France become the allies of Turkey against Russia, and the Russian or Crimean War begins. The Allies defeat the Russians at THE ALMA (Crimea), and besiege Sebastopol. A Russian attack on the British lines at Balaklava (near Sebastopol) is repulsed—charge of the Light Brigade. The Russians are again defeated at Inkermann (near Sebastopol).

1855. The Aberdeen Ministry resigns. Lord Palmerston becomes Premier. Dost Mohammed makes an alliance with Britain.

1855. The Czar Nicholas dies. The Russians are defeated at the Tchernaya (near Sebastopol). Lord Raglan dies. SEBASTOPOL is stormed by the Allies, and abandoned by the Russians.

1856. The Russian War is closed by the Treaty of Paris.

Sebastopol was dismantled, and Russia pledged herself not to keep vessels of war in the Black Sea. These provisions were cancelled by the Congress of London in 1871.

1856. A new War with China begins.

Peace was restored by the Treaty of Tien-tsin in 1858, by which all China was thrown open to Europeans. About the same time a commercial treaty was concluded with Japan.

1857. The INDIAN MUTINY breaks out at Meerut (near Delhi). Houses are burned, and Europeans are murdered.

The chief incidents were the Cawnpore massacre, the capture of Delhi, and the relief of Lucknow.

1858. The Princess Royal is married to the Crown Prince of Prussia.

1858. The Palmerston Ministry resigns. Lord Derby forms his second Ministry.

1858. The Mutiny in India is put down by Lord Clyde and Sir Hugh Rose. The East India Company is abolished, and the government is transferred to the Crown.

1858. An Act is passed permitting Jews, on the resolution of the House, to omit certain words in the oath, and to sit in Parliament.

1858. Peace is restored with China.

1859. The Derby Ministry resigns. Lord Palmerston forms his second Ministry; Mr. W. E. Gladstone is Chancellor of the Exchequer. A groundless alarm of a French invasion gives rise to the Volunteer movement.

1860. A Third Chinese War occurs. The British and the French capture the Summer Palace of the Emperor. They prepare to bombard the city, but it surrenders, and the Convention of Pekin is signed.

1860. A Commercial Treaty is negotiated with France by Mr. Cobden.

By this treaty the import duty on wines was very much reduced, and British manufactures were admitted into France on favourable terms.

1861. The Southern States, led by South Carolina, secede from the Union, and the American Civil War begins.

The chief question in dispute between the Northern and the Southern States was negro slavery. Ultimately eleven States seceded and formed themselves into the Confederate States. The object of the war was to restore these States to the Union. In this the North was completely successful, after a terrible war which lasted till 1865. *

1861. Albert, the Prince Consort, dies of typhoid fever, aged 42.

1862. The diminished supply of cotton stops the mills, and causes great distress in Lancashire.

There was immediately a great increase in the supply of cotton from India, Australia, Egypt, and Italy.

1862. An International Exhibition is held in London.

1862. The Alabama, a Confederate cruiser built on the Mersey, inflicts great damage on Northern shipping.

A court of arbitration at Geneva (September 1872) required Britain to pay to the United States a compensation of upwards of three million sterling.

1863. Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, is married at Windsor to Alexandra, daughter of the King of Denmark.

1865. Lord Palmerston dies; the Ministry is reconstituted by Earl Russell.

1866. Owing to the advance of Fenianism the *Habeas Corpus* Act is suspended in Ireland. The Earl of Derby forms his third Ministry. The Atlantic Cable is successfully laid between Valentia (Ireland) and Newfoundland.

1867. The SECOND REFORM ACT is passed, extending the franchise, and altering the distribution of seats. Acts for Scotland and Ireland follow. Lord Derby retires; Mr. Disraeli succeeds.

1867. The Provinces of British North America, with the exception of Newfoundland, are formed into one group, and are called the Dominion of Canada.

1868. A British army, under Sir Robert Napier, invades Abyssinia, and sets free European captives in the hands of King Theodore.

1868. Mr. Disraeli resigns. The Gladstone Ministry is formed.

1868. The Telegraphs Act is passed, enabling the Postmaster-General to purchase existing telegraphs.

1869. An Act is passed for the Disestablishment and Disendowment of the Irish Church after January 1, 1871.

1870. The Irish Land Act, securing a more favourable tenure to tenants, is passed.

1870. An Elementary Education Act for England and Wales is passed.
1871. An Act is passed abolishing religious Tests in the English Universities. A Bill for the Abolition of Purchase in the Army (with compensation) is rejected by the Lords. Purchase is then abolished by Royal Warrant.
1872. An Act is passed introducing Vote by Ballot for 8 years at parliamentary and municipal elections.
1872. An Elementary Education Act for Scotland is passed.
1873. A strike of about 60,000 miners in South Wales, rather than submit to a reduction of wages, causes much distress.
1874. Prince Alfred (second son of the Queen) is married to the Grand Duchess Marie of Russia.
1874. Intelligence reaches England of the death of David Livingstone, the African missionary-traveller, at Ilala, in Central Africa, May 4, 1873.
1874. General Sir Garnet Wolseley destroys Coomassie, the capital of Ashantee (West Africa).
- The cause of the war was the interference of the Ashantees with the commerce of neighbouring tribes who were allies of the British.
1874. Mr. Gladstone dissolves Parliament. The elections give the Conservatives a large majority. Mr. Gladstone resigns, and Mr. Disraeli becomes Prime Minister a second time.
1875. The British Government purchases from the Khedive of Egypt, for £4,080,000, about one-half of the shares in the Suez Canal.
1876. Lord Lytton succeeds Lord Northbrook as Viceroy of India. Queen Victoria is proclaimed Empress of India.
1877. The Transvaal is added to the British Empire.
1877. A war between Russia and Turkey is begun.
1878. The Treaty of Berlin closes the Russo-Turkish War.
1878. A new Afghan War is begun, in order to oppose Russian influence in Afghanistan.
- The British army withdrew entirely in 1881.
1878. A Zulu War begins. The British suffer a great disaster at Isandlhana.
- In the end the Zulus were defeated at Ulundi, and their king (Cetewayo) was captured.
1880. A general election gives the Liberals a large majority. Mr. Disraeli, now Lord Beaconsfield, resigns, and Mr. Gladstone again becomes Premier.
1880. Lord Ripon succeeds Lord Lytton as Viceroy of India.
1880. A short war breaks out with the Boers of the Transvaal. The Boers submit, on being promised self-government under the leadership of Great Britain.

1881. Ireland is in a very disturbed state. Coercion Acts are passed. A comprehensive Irish Land Act is also passed, which gives the tenants fair rent, fixity of tenure, and free sale.
1881. Lord Beaconsfield dies.
1882. Lord Frederick Cavendish and Mr. Burke are murdered in Dublin. A Prevention of Crimes Act is passed.
1882. An Egyptian War is undertaken to put down a rebellion against the Khedive. The British gain a great victory at Tel-el-Kebir, which ends the war.
1883. The Mahdi begins a war in the Soudan. General Gordon goes to Khartoum in 1884.
1883. Cetewayo is restored to his throne.
1884. A new Reform Act is passed, putting householders in counties on the same footing as those in towns.
1884. The Marquis of Dufferin becomes Viceroy of India.
1884. Lord Wolseley leads an army to relieve Gordon.
1885. Gordon is killed two days before the British troops arrive.
1885. A Redistribution Act is passed.
1885. Mr. Gladstone resigns, and Lord Salisbury becomes Prime Minister. A General Election follows, in which Lord Salisbury is defeated. Mr. Gladstone again becomes Prime Minister.
1886. A Scottish Crofters' Act is passed.
1886. Mr. Gladstone dissolves Parliament, his Home Rule Bill having been rejected; but is defeated. Lord Salisbury returns to office.
1887. Queen Victoria completes the fiftieth year of her reign.
1887. A permanent Act for the Suppression of Crime in Ireland and a new Irish Land Act are passed.
1888. A Local Government Act for England and Wales is passed.
1888. Lord Lansdowne becomes Viceroy of India.
1889. A Local Government Act for Scotland is passed.
1890. Heligoland is ceded to Germany, and the Protectorate of Zanzibar is granted to Great Britain.
1891. An Assisted Education Act for England and Wales is passed.
1892. Free Education is granted to Ireland.
1892. Albert Victor, Duke of Clarence, dies.
1892. After a General Election the Salisbury ministry is defeated, and resigns. Mr. Gladstone becomes Prime Minister.
1893. George, Duke of York, marries Princess Mary of Teck.
1893. The Second Home Rule Bill is passed in the Commons, but rejected in the Lords.
1893. A Parish Councils Act for England and Wales is passed.
1894. Mr. Gladstone resigns, and the Earl of Rosebery becomes Prime Minister.
1894. A Parish Councils Act for Scotland is passed.

1895. Lord Rosebery resigns, and Lord Salisbury becomes Premier. After a General Election, Lord Salisbury is returned to power with a large majority.
1896. The United States intervenes in a quarrel between Great Britain and Venezuela.
1896. Dr. Jameson invades the Transvaal; for which he and his officers are sent to England, where they are sentenced to various terms of imprisonment.
1896. The Matabele revolt; they are defeated, and afterwards completely surrender.
1896. Prempeh, King of Ashantee, is deposed for breach of treaty made after the war of 1874.
1897. Queen Victoria's Diamond Jubilee is celebrated with great rejoicings on June 22.
1897. The Afridis (India) refuse to acknowledge British authority, but after a stubborn resistance they submit.
1898. Mr. Gladstone dies (May 19), and is buried in Westminster Abbey.
1898. The reconquest of the Soudan is completed by British and Egyptian troops, under Sir Herbert Kitchener, at the battles of Atbara and Omdurman.
1898. Imperial Penny Postage is introduced between Great Britain and nearly all her colonies and dependencies.
1899. The Boer War begins. The Boers invade Natal, and besiege Ladysmith, Kimberley, and Mafeking.
1900. The British occupy Bloemfontein (March), and the Orange Free State is annexed under the title of the Orange River Colony. Pretoria is also occupied (June), and the South African Republic is annexed (September) under the name of the Transvaal.
1900. Parliament is dissolved in the autumn, in order to obtain the opinion of the country on the policy of the Government in South Africa. Lord Salisbury is again returned to power with a very large majority.
1901. Queen Victoria dies, aged 81.

EDWARD VII. 1901 to 1910 A.D.—9 years.

Son of Victoria. Married Alexandra, eldest daughter of King Christian IX. of Denmark.

1902. The Boers accept the British terms of surrender, and peace is declared.
1902. Treaty of Alliance between Great Britain and Japan, to last for five years.

1902. Lord Salisbury retires from office, and Mr. A. J. Balfour becomes Prime Minister.
1902. A new Education Act for England and Wales is passed (December).
1903. Land Purchase Act for Ireland is passed, by which £100,000,000 is to be advanced to aid the voluntary sales of estates by landlords to tenants.
1903. Lord Salisbury dies (August 22), and is buried at Hatfield.
1903. An Education Act for London is passed.
1904. Anglo-French Agreement.
1904. A Licensing Act is passed, providing, amongst other things, for the gradual suppression of licenses.
1905. Renewal of Treaty of Alliance between Great Britain and Japan, to last for ten years.
1905. Mr. Balfour resigns, and Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman becomes Prime Minister.
1906. A General Election takes place, and results in an overwhelming majority for the new Government.
1907. Self-government is granted to the Transvaal and the Orange River Colony.
1907. The Territorial Army and Reserve Forces Act is passed.
1907. Anglo-Russian Agreement.
1908. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman retires from office on account of ill-health, and Mr. H. H. Asquith becomes Prime Minister.
1908. Old Age Pensions Act, providing a pension of five shillings a week for persons over the age of seventy, is passed.
1909. An Irish Land Act, developing the Act of 1903, is passed.
1909. The Union of South Africa includes the provinces of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State.
1910. A General Election in January results in the return of the Liberal Government.
1910. Edward VII. dies on May 6, aged 69 years.

GEORGE V. Began to reign, 1910 A.D.

- Son of Edward VII. Married Victoria Mary, daughter of the Duke of Teck.
1910. The first Parliament of the Union of South Africa is opened by the Duke of Connaught.
1910. A General Election in December again results in the return of Mr. Asquith to power.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE.

The **BRITISH EMPIRE** consists of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and a large number of colonies and dependencies in every part of the world. It includes one-sixth of the land surface of the globe, and one-fifth of the entire human race. The following list includes the principal parts of the British Empire, the colonies and dependencies being arranged under the continents to which they belong.

BRITISH POSSESSIONS IN EUROPE.

The **BRITISH ISLANDS** consist of Great Britain (England, Scotland, and Wales) and Ireland and a number of smaller islands off the west coast of Europe.

ISLE OF MAN (Mona), in the Irish Sea, at a nearly equal distance from England, Scotland, and Ireland, became the property of the Dukes of Athole, by inheritance, in 1735, and was finally purchased by the British Government in 1827. It is ruled by a Governor, a Council, and a parliament called House of Keys.

CHANNEL ISLES are a group off Normandy, of which the largest is Jersey. Others are Guernsey, Alderney, and Sark. They have belonged to

England since the Norman conquest in 1066.

GIBRALTAR, a rocky promontory in the south of Spain, is 3 miles long and 1,500 feet high. It was ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713. (See pages 326, 330.) The French and Spaniards besieged it unsuccessfully from 1779 till 1782. (See page 369.) It is an important military station, being the "Key of the Mediterranean."

MALTA, an island in the Mediterranean, is 58 miles south of Sicily. Its capital is *Valetta*. The island was taken by France in 1798, and by Great Britain in 1800. It is the central station of the Mediterranean fleet. **Gozo** is a small island lying 5 miles to the north-west.

IN ASIA.

CYPRUS, an island in the east of the Mediterranean, produces cotton, wine, grain, and fruits. It is a part of the Turkish Empire, but since 1878 the government has been administered by Great Britain. (See page 454.)

ADEN, a town in the south-west of

Arabia, was taken by the British in 1839. Steamers stop here for coal. **Perim** is a small island at the entrance of the Red Sea.

INDIA. The peninsula of Hindustan, and the provinces of Assam and Burma beyond the Ganges, now form one de-

pendency under the Viceroy and Governor-General of India, who is appointed for five years, and is assisted by an executive council. The empire is divided for administrative purposes into fourteen provinces. Two-fifths of the country are made up of Feudatory States, ruled over by native chiefs. The chief events in the history of British India are:—Charter granted by Queen Elizabeth in 1600; settlement at Madras in 1639; Bombay acquired by marriage of Charles II. to Catherine of Portugal in 1661; Fort William, Calcutta, erected in 1689; Sujah-ad-Dowlah of Bengal takes Calcutta in 1756; Clive recovers Calcutta, and wins the Battle of Plassey, in 1757 (p. 357); Warren Hastings first Governor-General in 1773 (p. 371); his wars with Hyder Ali and the Nizam in 1780; fall of Seringapatam and death of Tippoo Saib of Mysore in 1799 (p. 373); overthrow of the Mahrattas at Assaye in 1803; first Burmese War—British Burma annexed in 1825 (p. 408); first Afghan War, from 1839 to 1842 (p. 427); Sindh annexed in 1843 (p. 431); the Punjab conquered in 1849 (p. 432); second Burmese War—Pegu taken in 1852; Oudh annexed in 1856; Indian Mutiny in 1857 (p. 443); East India Company abolished in 1858 (p. 447); Victoria proclaimed Empress of India in 1876 (p. 448); second Afghan War in 1878 (p. 454); third Burmese War—the whole of Burma annexed in 1886 (p. 461). India is rich in all tropical produce.

CEYLON, an oval island (270 miles by 145) lying south-east of India, was taken by Great Britain from the Dutch in 1795. It was erected into a Crown colony in 1801. Its productions are tea, coffee, sugar, rice, pepper, teak, cinnamon, and gems, especially pearls.

HONG-KONG, a small island (8 miles long) off the coast of China, at the mouth of the Canton river, was ceded to Great Britain by the Chinese in 1842 (p. 430). **Wei-hai-wei**, on the Yellow Sea, was leased to Britain by China in 1898. **Kooloon**, a small peninsula on the mainland opposite, was ceded to Great Britain in 1861 (p. 448).

STRAIT SETTLEMENTS are in the Strait of Malacca. **Penang** (16 miles by 8), an island in the north entrance of the strait, takes its name from the *betel-nut*. Its capital, *Georgetown*, was purchased by Great Britain in 1786. **Province Wellesley**, a narrow strip of country on the western coast of the Malay Peninsula, was acquired in 1800. It produces sugar-cane. **Malacca** was transferred by the Dutch to Great Britain in 1824. **Singapore**, an island (27 miles by 11) off the south point of the Malay Peninsula, was purchased in 1819. It is a great dépôt for the trade with China.

BRITISH NORTH BORNEO is the northern part of the island of Borneo, in the Indian Archipelago.

LABUAN, an island off the north-west coast of Borneo, was ceded to Great Britain in 1847.

IN AUSTRALASIA.

AUSTRALIA, the largest island in the world. Its eastern coast was explored by Captain Cook in 1770 (p. 14); and in 1802 Flinders sailed round it, and gave it the name of Australia. The chief productions are wool and gold. The five colonies of Australia, together with Tasmania, form the Australian Commonwealth, which was established on 1st January 1901.

New South Wales. In 1788 a penal colony was formed by Great Britain at

Botany Bay, and afterwards removed to Port Jackson, where the capital, *Sydney*, now stands.

In 1829 **West Australia** was colonized. The capital is *Perth*.

South Australia, founded in 1836, has *Adelaide* for its capital.

Victoria was made a separate colony in 1851. Its capital is *Melbourne*.

Queensland was founded in 1859. Its capital is *Brisbane*.

TASMANIA, an island south of Aus-

tralia, was formed into a distinct colony in 1825. The capital is *Hobart*. **Norfolk Island**, 900 miles to the east of Australia, is under the government of New South Wales.

NEW ZEALAND—two large islands, North Island and South Island, and a small one, *Stewart Island*—is situated about 1,200 miles east of New South Wales. The capital is *Wellington*, in North Island. New Zealand was settled in 1839, and in 1841 was erected

into a distinct colony (p. 14). The chief productions are coal, gold, wool, native flax.

BRITISH NEW GUINEA, the southern half of Papua, or New Guinea, a large island lying to the north of Australia, was annexed by Great Britain in 1888.

FIJI ISLANDS, a numerous group in the South Pacific, 1,100 miles north of New Zealand, were annexed by Great Britain in 1874.

IN AFRICA.

SIERRA LEONE, on the west coast of Africa, is very unhealthy for Europeans, and used to be known as “the white man’s grave.” *Freetown*, the capital, has the best harbour on the West African coast.

GAMBIA COLONY and PROTECTORATE consists of the colony proper at the mouth of the Gambia River, and a strip of territory on both sides of the river. *Bathurst*, the capital, is the only important town.

GOLD COAST, on the coast of the Gulf of Guinea, includes the Gold Coast Colony, the former kingdom of Ashanti, and the Gold Coast Protectorate. The colony is extremely unhealthy for Europeans. *Accra*, the capital, *Cape Coast Castle*, and *Kumasi* are the chief towns.

SOUTHERN NIGERIA consists of the former colony of Lagos and its Protectorate, the Central or Niger Province, and the Eastern or Calabar Province. It stretches for about 400 miles along the Gulf of Guinea. The climate is hot, and is unhealthy for Europeans. *Lagos* and *Abeokuta* are the chief towns.

NORTHERN NIGERIA embraces part of the valleys of the Niger and the Benue, and extends northwards to Lake Chad. Rubber, ivory, hides, ostrich feathers are the chief exports. Cotton-growing is on the increase. In many parts of this region British authority is not fully established, and slavery is only partially abolished.

Zungeru, *Yakoba*, and *Kano* are the chief towns.

ST. HELENA, a rocky island in the South Atlantic, was taken by the British in 1673. It is famous as the prison of Napoleon Bonaparte from 1815 till 1821. *Jamestown* is the capital.

ASCENSION, a small volcanic island half-way between Brazil and Guinea, was occupied in 1815.

TRISTAN DA CUNHA (pron. *coo-n'ya*) is the largest of a small group of islands in the South Atlantic, half-way between South Africa and South America.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, one of the four provinces of the Union of South Africa, is the most southerly portion of Africa. In 1652 a colony was established here by the Dutch, from whom it was taken by the British in 1795. It was finally ceded to the British in 1815. Its chief productions are gold, diamonds, wool, and ostrich feathers. The capital is *Cape Town*.

BASUTOLAND is a high plateau between the Cape of Good Hope and the Orange Free State and Natal. It is administered by a resident Commissioner. Immense herds of cattle are reared on the grassy plains. European settlement is prohibited. *Maseru* is the capital.

BECHUANALAND PROTECTORATE lies between the Transvaal and Great Namaqualand. The Bechuanas are ruled by their own chiefs, under a resident Commissioner. The chief town is *Palachwe* or *Palapye*.

NATAL, one of the provinces of the Union of South Africa, is north-east of the Cape of Good Hope. It was founded by Dutch Boers, and became a British colony in 1856. It rears sheep, and exports wool and ostrich feathers. There are extensive coal-fields round Newcastle. *Pietermaritzburg* is the capital, and *Durban* the chief port.

RHODESIA (named after the late Cecil John Rhodes) occupies the centre of South Africa, from the Transvaal and the Bechuanaland Protectorate in the south to the Belgian Congo in the north, and from German South-West Africa and Angola on the west to Portuguese East Africa and the Nyasaland Protectorate on the east. It is divided by the Zambezi River into Southern and Northern Rhodesia. The country is rich in gold-producing rock, and numerous mines have been opened. The chief towns are *Salisbury*, the capital, *Bulawayo*, *Umtali*, and *Victoria*.

ORANGE FREE STATE, north-east of Cape of Good Hope, is one of the provinces of the Union of South Africa. It was annexed by the British in 1900, during the Boer War. Much grain is grown, ostriches are reared, and diamond mines are worked. *Bloemfontein* is the capital.

TRANSVAAL, formerly the South African Republic, is one of the provinces of the Union of South Africa. It was founded by Dutch Boers, who migrated from Cape of Good Hope. In 1877 it was annexed by the British Government. As the result of a revolt in 1880 it became practically independent. It was again annexed by Britain in 1900, during the Boer War. The colony is suited for agriculture and stock-rearing, and its gold mines are the richest in the world. *Pretoria* is the capital, and *Johannesburg* is the largest town.

SWAZILAND, at the south-eastern corner of the Transvaal, is governed by the High Commissioner of South Africa. *Mbabane* is the seat of government.

BRITISH EAST AFRICA is a large territory, bounded on the south-west

by German East Africa and the Belgian Congo, and on the north-east by Abyssinia and Italian Somaliland. The islands of Zanzibar and Pemba, off the German coast, are included. It is divided into the East Africa Protectorate, the Uganda Protectorate, and the Zanzibar Protectorate.

The East Africa Protectorate has a coast-line of some 400 miles. The Uganda Railway, 584 miles long, crosses the southern part of the Protectorate. *Mombasa* is the capital.

The Uganda Protectorate forms the western part of British East Africa. The land is fertile, and rich in all tropical produce. *Entebbe* is the capital.

The Zanzibar Protectorate consists of Zanzibar and Pemba and a few smaller islands, the dominions on the mainland which were formerly ruled by the Sultan of Zanzibar being now part of the East African territories of Germany, Great Britain, and Italy. *Zanzibar* is the principal trading centre on the east coast of Africa.

NYASALAND PROTECTORATE, formerly the British Central Africa Protectorate, is a strip of territory on the western side of Lake Nyasa. *Zomba* is the seat of government, and the chief town is *Blantyre*.

SOMALILAND PROTECTORATE, or **BRITISH SOMALILAND**, the "eastern horn of Africa," is so called from the Somalis, who inhabit it. It consists mainly of plateaus covered with parched and stunted vegetation. *Berbera* is the seat of government.

MAURITIUS, an island 550 miles east of Madagascar, has for its capital *Port Louis*. It was colonized by the French in 1715, and taken by the British in 1810. It is an important naval station. The dependencies of Mauritius are—the Rodriguez, east of Mauritius; Cargados or St. Brandon Islands, and Chagos Islands, north-east of Mauritius.

THE SEYCHELLES lie in the Indian Ocean, about 600 miles north-east of Madagascar. They formed a dependency of Mauritius until 1903, when they were made a separate colony.

IN AMERICA.

THE DOMINION OF CANADA, constituted in 1867 by the union of Quebec (Lower Canada), Ontario (Upper Canada), Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, now includes all the North American provinces except Newfoundland.

1. **Quebec**, on the St. Lawrence River, In 1608 a settlement was founded here by the French, from whom it was taken by the British in 1759 (p. 358). The chief towns are *Quebec* and *Montreal*.

2. **Ontario** is separated from Quebec by the river Ottawa. The first British settlers were refugees from the States at the time of the Revolutionary War (1775-81), who preferred to remain under British rule. Chief towns, *Toronto* and *Ottawa*, capital of the Dominion.

3. **Nova Scotia** is a peninsula south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence. It was ceded to Great Britain in 1713 (p. 330). The capital is *Halifax*. **Cape Breton Island** is now incorporated with Nova Scotia.

4. **New Brunswick**, on the mainland, south of the St. Lawrence, was colonized by the British in 1761, and made a separate province in 1783. *Fredericton* is the capital.

5. **Manitoba**, a large area south of Lake Winnipeg, near the middle of the continent, was organized in 1870. The capital is *Winnipeg*.

6. **Saskatchewan**, west of Manitoba, was formed in 1905. It includes part of the former districts of Assiniboina, Saskatchewan, and Athabasca. *Regina* is the capital.

7. **Alberta**, between Saskatchewan and British Columbia, was formed into a province in 1905. *Edmonton* is the capital.

8. **British Columbia**, between the Rocky Mountains and the Pacific, was, until 1858, a part of the Hudson Bay Territory. It joined the Dominion in 1871. Capital, *Victoria*, on Vancouver.

9. **Prince Edward Island**, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, north of Nova Scotia, joined the Dominion in 1873. The capital is *Charlottetown*.

Yukon, **Mackenzie**, **Keewatin**, **Ungava**, and **Franklin** are districts in the north of the Dominion.

NEWFOUNDLAND, a large island at the entrance of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, was taken possession of by the English in 1583. The capital is *St. John's*. **Labrador** is attached to the government of Newfoundland.

BRITISH HONDURAS, on the south-east of Yucatan, Central America, with a coast-line of 174 miles, was ceded to Great Britain in 1763. It is valuable for its forests of logwood and mahogany. *Belize* is the capital.

BRITISH GUIANA, in the north-east of South America, was taken from the Dutch in 1814. The productions are chiefly sugar and coffee. The capital is *Georgetown*.

FALKLAND ISLANDS, 300 miles east of Patagonia, were taken possession of by Great Britain in 1771, and finally ceded in 1833.

IN THE WEST INDIES.

JAMAICA (144 miles by 49) was taken from Spain in 1655 (p. 298). Its productions are sugar, rum, and other tropical produce. *Kingston* is the chief town.

TRINIDAD, taken by Britain in 1797.

LEEWARD ISLANDS: **Montserrat**, **Antigua** (with **Barbuda**), were colonized in 1632; **St. Kitts**, in 1623; **Nevis**, in 1628; **Anguilla**, in 1650; **Virgin Islands**, in 1666. **Dominica** was taken from France in 1783.

WINDWARD ISLANDS: **Grenada**,

and **St. Vincent** were taken from the French in 1762; **Tobago**, in 1793; and **St. Lucia** in 1803.

BAHAMAS. One of these islands, **San Salvador**, was the first American land seen by Columbus in 1492. They were occupied by the British in 1629.

BARBADOS, colonized in 1625, is the head-quarters of the British military forces in the West Indies.

BERMUDA, east of United States, was first colonized by the British in 1609.

BRITISH CONSTITUTION;

OR, HOW WE ARE GOVERNED.

1. **The Government.**—The Government of Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Colonies and Dependencies, is vested in the Sovereign and the two Houses of Parliament—the House of Lords and the House of Commons. It is thus a mixed Government—not pure monarchy, nor pure aristocracy (rule of the nobles), nor pure democracy (rule of the people), but a compound of all three. In this threefold character lies its strength.

2. The chief business of the two Houses of Parliament is to make laws, and to vote money for the public service. The power of administering the laws belongs to the Sovereign; but in practice this is done in the Sovereign's name by the Ministry, a body of advisers chosen from both Houses of Parliament. The Ministry is responsible to Parliament for the management of affairs, and for the advice it gives to the Crown; and when it no longer has the confidence of the House of Commons, the Sovereign chooses another body of advisers. Thus Parliament is practically supreme.

3. **The Sovereign.**—The crown is hereditary, and women are allowed to rule; but the Sovereign must be a Protestant of the Church of England. The chief powers of the Sovereign are—to make war and peace; and to summon, prorogue, and dissolve Parliament. The assent of the Sovereign is also necessary to every new law. But, as already stated, these powers are now exercised by the Sovereign under the advice of the Ministry for the time being.

4. **The Parliament.**—The House of Lords, or Upper House of Parliament, comprises 26 Lords Spiritual and 605 Lords Temporal. The Lord Chancellor, sitting on the woolsack, acts as president or chairman of the Lords.

5. According to the Act of 1884, the House of Commons, or Lower House of Parliament, consists of 670 representatives of counties, boroughs, and universities,—namely, England and Wales, 495; Scotland, 72; and Ireland, 103. The chairman of the Commons is called the *Speaker*, because he is their spokesman or representative in addressing the Sovereign. Any Bill may be introduced in the House of Commons, and money Bills can originate in that House alone. The electors are, both in *boroughs* and in *counties*, householders rated for relief of the poor, lodgers occupying rooms valued at £10 a-year unfurnished, and persons in service who occupy free houses as part payment of wages.

6. **Meetings of Parliament.**—Parliament meets usually in February, and the session lasts till the beginning of August, with short breaks at Easter and Whitsuntide. Each House of Parliament may *adjourn*

its meetings from day to day. The Sovereign, advised by the Ministry, *prorogues* Parliament from session to session; and *dissolves* it, when a new Parliament is to be elected. A Parliament cannot last longer than seven years.

7. Progress of a Bill.—The process of law-making is conducted as follows:—The proposed law is introduced in either House in the form of a Bill, after leave has been given to do so. It is then read for the *first time*, without opposition. The Bill is then printed, and a day is fixed for the *second reading*. If it passes the second reading, the House then votes upon each clause in the Bill separately “*in committee*.” After the Bill has passed through committee, it is “*reported*” to the House in its revised form, and is ready for the *third reading*. If it passes this reading, it is then sent to the other House. There it goes through an exactly similar process—three readings, with examination in committee between the second and the third. If altered there, the Bill is sent back to the House in which it originated, which either agrees to the amendments or not, and may ask for a conference with the other House to settle differences. When the Bill has finally passed both Houses, the Royal assent is required before it can become an Act or law.

8. Government Officials.—From very early times, the advisers of the Sovereign have been known as the Privy Council. As this body was found to be too numerous, it became usual, after the Revolution of 1688, to intrust the government to a committee of the Privy Council called the Ministry. The head of the Ministry is the Prime Minister, or Premier. The Sovereign chooses as Prime Minister the recognized leader of that political party which has the majority in the House of Commons for the time, and asks him to form a Ministry from among his own supporters.

9. The chief ministers form the Cabinet, which fixes the general policy of the Ministry, and the measures which are to be proposed in Parliament. The Cabinet consists of the Prime Minister and First Lord of the Treasury, the Lord Chancellor, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the five principal Secretaries of State, and the President of the Privy Council. Other ministers are also sometimes included in the Cabinet, but that body does not usually consist of more than eighteen or nineteen members.

10. Government of the Colonies.—The Colonies and Dependencies have their own affairs administered by resident Governors and Councils, appointed by the Crown, and controlled in London by a Secretary of State, who is a member of the Cabinet. The more populous and older Colonies—those of North America and of Australia, for example—have been placed as much as possible on the footing of self-government; that is to say, there is in each a legislative assembly elected by the people.

GEOGRAPHICAL APPENDIX.

The numbers in brackets refer to the pages of this book on which the places are mentioned.

Aboulkir (*a-bo-keer*) (382), a bay at the western mouth of the Nile, in Egypt. It was the scene of Nelson's victory over the French fleet in August 1798.

Abraham, Heights of (358), a table-land in the neighbourhood of Quebec, Canada. Sealed by General Wolfe at the taking of Quebec in 1759.

Abu-Klea (458), a battle-field in the Bayuda Desert, Nubia, North Africa. Here the British defeated the Arabs in the Egyptian War (1882-85).

Abyssinia (451), a country in the east of Africa, near the Red Sea. A war with the British was carried on in 1868.

Acre (382, 428), a fortified sea-port on the coast of Syria, near the foot of Mount Carmel. It is famous for the number of its great sieges:—1104, by the Crusaders; 1187, by the Saracens; 1191, by the Crusaders; 1291, by the Saracens; 1799, by Napoleon I.; 1832, by Ibrahim Pasha; 1840, by the British.

Afghan'istan (427, 454), a country of Asia; west of India. Two wars were carried on between this country and Great Britain (1839-42 and 1878-81).

Aigincourt (*ash-ang-koor*) (160), a village in the north of France; 20 miles north-east of Creçy, and 36 miles south-east of Calais. Here Henry V. won a brilliant victory over the French, 1415.

Aix-la-Chapelle' (349), a city of Rhenish Prussia, Germany; 34 miles

south-west of Cologne. By a treaty arranged here in 1748 the War of the Austrian Succession was brought to a close. Its German name is *Aachen*.

Alexandria (382, 456), a city of Northern Africa; 14 miles from the most westerly mouth of the Nile, opposite to the island of Pharos. It is now the great port of Egypt. Bonaparte was defeated here in 1801. The town was bombarded by the British in 1882.

Allwal' (432), a village of the Punjab, India; on the Sutlej. Here the British won a victory in 1846.

Allahabad', a strong fortress in British India; at the junction of the Jumna and the Ganges.

Alleghany Mountains, running north and south through the United States; from 150 to 200 miles distant from the Atlantic coast.

Alma (436), a river in the west of the Crimea, Russia; noted for the victory of the French and British over the Russians in 1854.

Alman'za (327), a town in the south-east of Spain. Here, in 1707, the Duke of Berwick defeated the Spanish and English troops, thus winning the crown of Spain for Philip V.

Alnwick (*an-nik*) (76, 105), a town of Northumberland. Here Malcolm III. of Scotland was killed, 1093; and here William the Lion was captured, 1174.

Amiens (*am-e-ong*) (388), a town of Northern France, on the Somme,

- which gave its name to the hollow peace of 1802.
- Amoy'** (430), a town on the coast of China. Opened to British trade in 1842.
- Anglesey or Mona** (25), an island and county of Wales, separated from the mainland by Menai Strait. The scene of a massacre of Druids by the Romans, 61 A.D.
- Anjou** (*ang-zhoō*), an old province of France, now known as Maine-et-Loire.
- Ans'pach**, a town of Bavaria, Germany; on the Lower Rezat.
- Ar'agon**, an old province in the north-east of Spain.
- Archangel** (*ark-aɪn'-jel*), a town in the north of Russia; on the Dwina, near the White Sea.
- Arcot** (355), formerly the capital of the Carnatic, India; 64 miles south-west of Madras. Taken by Clive in 1751.
- Arme'nia**, a country of Western Asia; to the south of the Caucasus mountains.
- Ashantee'** (469), a colony of Western Africa; 300 miles inland from the Gold Coast. It was placed under British protection in 1896, and was annexed by Britain in 1901.
- Austerlitz** (386), a town of Moravia, Austria; 70 miles north-east of Vienna. Here the Emperors of Russia and Austria were defeated by Napoleon, December 1805. This broke up the coalition against France.
- Austria and Hungary**.—Austria (East March) was a little dukedom in the time of the Crusades. The Habsburgs became Archdukes of Austria in 1278, and having gained the imperial crown of Germany, they never let it leave their family. In 1804 the Emperor of Germany exchanged that title for the present one, Emperor of Austria. Hungary was at one time a great kingdom, stretching from the Carpathians to the Adriatic. Now Austria and Hungary are united.
- Badajoz** (*bad-a-hoθ'*) (393), a town of Spain, on the Guadiana. Taken by Wellington in 1812.
- Balaklava** (437), a port of Russia in the south-west of the Crimea; 6 miles from Sebastopol. Near it a battle was fought in 1854, when the famous charge of the Light Cavalry Brigade took place.
- Bannockburn** (134), a small town in Stirlingshire, where King Robert Bruce won a complete victory over Edward II., thus securing the independence of Scotland, 1314.
- Barbary** (293), the general name for the north of Africa between Egypt and the Atlantic. States were founded here by pirates early in the sixteenth century. Admiral Blake forced them into submission in 1655.
- Bareilly** (*bar-a'-le*) (446), a town in the North-west Provinces, India; between Delhi and Lucknow. Its fall in 1858 brought the Indian Mutiny to a close.
- Barnet** (180), a town of Hertford; 10 miles north-west of London. Here one of the battles of the War of the Roses was fought, in which Warwick "the King-maker" was slain, 1471.
- Bavaria**.—Next to Prussia, this is the most important state in Germany. The principal territory lies to the east of Baden and Würtemberg. Part of the old Palatinate of the Rhine, on the north-east of France, also belongs to Bavaria.
- Bayeux** (*bay-yuh'*), a town of Normandy, France; on the Aure.
- Bayuda Desert**, in Nubia, North Africa; between Korti and Shendy.
- Bedford** (297), the county town of Bedfordshire; on the Ouse. In the prison here John Bunyan wrote the "Pilgrim's Progress."
- Belgium**. See *Netherlands*.
- Bengal'**, the largest presidency (or province) of British India, in the east.
- Berke'ley** (135), a small town on the Avon, in Gloucestershire. In the castle here Edward II. was murdered in 1327.
- Berlin** (387, 454), the capital of Prussia, on the Spree. It was entered by Napoleon in 1806, and from it he issued his decree against trade with

Britain. A treaty signed here in 1878 brought to a close the Russo-Turkish War.

Berwick (*ber'rik*) (131, 136), a town of Northumberland; on the Tweed. It was sacked by Edward I., and was taken from the Scots by Edward III. in 1333, since which time it has been an English possession.

Black Sea, an inland sea lying between Europe and Asia.

Blackwater (246), a battle-field in County Tyrone, Ireland, where O'Neil gained a victory over the English, 1598.

Blenheim (325), a village of West Bavaria, Germany; on the Danube. Here Marlborough won a brilliant victory over the French in 1704.

Blois (*blwa*), a city of France, on the Loire; south-west of Orleans.

Bohemia, an ancient kingdom, now forming part of the Austro-Hungarian empire. The crown passed to the Austrian royal family in 1526.

Bombay', an important seaport in the west of British India.

Boscobel (289), a hamlet of Shropshire; one of the hiding-places of Charles II. after the Battle of Worcester, in 1651.

Boston (365), the capital of Massachusetts, United States. Here the first outbreak took place (1773) which preceded the American War.

Bosworth, Market (187), a town of Leicestershire; 18 miles west of Leicester. Here in 1485 the last battle of the War of the Roses was fought, which gave the English crown to Henry, Earl of Richmond.

Bothwell Bridge (304), a bridge over the Clyde, in Lanarkshire; near Hamilton. The scene of a defeat of the Covenanters in 1679. The bridge was only 12 feet wide, and had a gate in the centre.

Boyne (317), a river in the east of Ireland, flowing into the Irish Sea, near Drogheda. Famous for the battle fought on its banks in 1690, when William III. gained a complete victory over James II.

Braemar' (336), a village of Aberdeen- (859)

shire; 52 miles south-west of Aberdeen. Here the clansmen mustered round the Earl of Mar in the Jacobite rising of 1715.

Brandywine (368), a stream in Pennsylvania, North America, on the banks of which a battle was fought between the Americans and the British in 1777.

Brazil.—First colonized by the Portuguese; constituted a kingdom in 1815, and an empire in 1822; its independence was acknowledged by Portugal in 1825.

Breda (*bray'-da*) (300), a town of Holland, near the Belgian frontier; 28 miles north-east of Antwerp. Here a treaty was made with the Dutch in 1667.

Brest, the chief naval station of France on the Atlantic.

Bretigny (*bret-een'-ye*) (141), a village of France; about 60 miles south-west of Paris. Here Edward III. signed a treaty, giving up his claim to the French crown, 1360.

Bridgewater, a town of Somersetshire; 12 miles north-east of Taunton.

Brittany, an old province in the north-west of France.

Bru'ges, the capital of West Flanders, in Belgium. At one time a great centre of the woollen trade.

Brunanburh (50), a battle-field in the north-east of England; somewhere north of the Humber. Here the Danes, Scots, and Welsh were routed by Athelstan, 937.

Brunswick, a state of North Germany; east of Hanover.

Brussels, the capital of Belgium, on the Senne, a tributary of the Dyle. A revolution took place here in 1830, which ended in the separation of Belgium from Holland.

Bulgaria (453), a principality of south-eastern Europe, tributary to Turkey; separated from Roumania by the Danube. The scene of cruel massacres of Christian subjects in 1876.

Bunker Hill (366), overlooking the town of Boston, in Massachusetts, United States; where a battle was

fought between the British and the Americans in 1775.

Burgh-on-Sands (132), a village near Carlisle, Cumberland; where Edward I. died when on a journey to invade Scotland, 1307.

Burgundy, an old province in the east of France.

Burma (408, 461), a state of the Indo-Chinese peninsula, to the east of India. In 1825 a portion of the country—called British Burma—was acquired by Great Britain; and in 1886 the whole was added to the British dominions.

Bury St. Edmunds (46), a town of Suffolk. So called because King Edmund, killed by the Danes in 870, was buried here.

Busa'co (892), a battle-field of the Peninsular War, in Portugal; half-way between the mouth of the Tagus and that of the Douro. The French were repulsed here in 1810.

Cabul (*caw'-bool*) (427), the chief city of Afghanistan. Occupied by British troops in 1839.

Ca'diz (240, 269), a seaport town in the south of Spain. Taken by Lord Howard in Queen Elizabeth's reign. An attempt by Charles I. to retake the town failed.

Caen (*kang*) (74), a town of Normandy, France. Here William the Conqueror was buried.

Caernarvon, a seaport of North Wales; on the Menai Strait.

Cairo (*ki'-ro*) (382), the chief city of Egypt; south-east of Alexandria. Near here, in 1798, Bonaparte fought the "Battle of the Pyramids." The Pyramids are on the opposite side of the Nile from Cairo.

Calais (*kal'ay*) (217), a French seaport on the Strait of Dover. It was surrendered to France in 1558, after having been in the possession of England since 1347.

Calcutta, the chief town of Bengal, on the Hoogly, a branch of the Ganges.

Camperdown' (378), a village on the coast of Holland; north-west of Am-

sterdam. In the offing Admiral Duncan destroyed the Dutch fleet in 1797.

Canada (359), a large territory in North America, belonging to Great Britain. The colony was founded by the French in 1609, but it passed into the hands of the British in 1760.

Cantire', a peninsula of Scotland, forming the south of the county of Argyle.

Canton' (430), an important city of China; 70 miles inland from the China Sea. It was the first port opened to European traffic, 1842.

Cape of Good Hope (15), the chief province of the Union of South Africa.

Cape of Good Hope (194). This cape, in the south of Africa, was doubled, and the passage to India was discovered, by Vasco de Gama in 1497. It was formerly called "Cape of Storms;" but after it had been doubled, the King of Portugal called it "Cape of Good Hope."

Cape Town, the capital of Cape of Good Hope, in the south of Africa.

Cardiff (85), a sea-port of Glamorganshire, South Wales. In the castle here Robert of Normandy was confined by his brother, Henry I.

Car'isbrooke (282), a village and castle in the Isle of Wight, where Charles I. was confined in 1647.

Carnatic, The, a division of Southern India, extending along the east coast; about 90 miles broad.

Carolina, North, one of the United States of America; south of Virginia.

Cartage'na (345), a town on the north coast of Colombia, South America. Unsuccessfully attacked by the British in 1739.

Cau'casus, a range of mountains stretching between the Black Sea and the Caspian.

Cawnpore' (444), a town in the province of Oudh, India; on the Ganges. Here a cruel massacre of Europeans was carried out, 1857.

Ceylon', an island off the southern extremity of India, belonging to Great Britain.

Chalgrove Field (278), in Berkshire; about 15 miles south-east of Oxford. Here, in one of the battles of the Civil War, John Hampden was killed, 1643.

Chaluz (*sha-looz*) (110), a castle near Limoges, in southern France. Besieged by Richard I. in 1199.

Charleroi (*sharl-rwa'*), a fortified town of Belgium, on the Sambre; near the border of France.

Charleston (368), the capital of South Carolina, North America; 7 miles from the Atlantic. Taken by Sir Henry Clinton in 1780.

Chillianwala (432), a village of the Punjab, India, where the Sikhs were defeated by the British, 1849.

Cin'tra (390), a small town of Estremadura, Portugal; near Lisbon. A convention held here in 1808 allowed the French to evacuate Portugal unmolested.

Ciudad Rodrigo (*the-oo-dad' rod-re'-go*) (398), a fortified town of Salamanca, Spain; taken by Wellington in 1812.

Clarendon (102), a village of Wiltshire, where the famous "Constitutions of Clarendon" were drawn up in 1164.

Cleves (206), a town of Rhenish Prussia, Germany. Here Anne, fourth wife of Henry VIII., was born.

Compiègne (*kom-pyan'*) (170), a French town; 45 miles north of Paris. Defended by Joan of Arc.

Con'go, a great river of Western Africa. Its mouth is in Lower Guinea.

Coomas'sie (451), the capital of Ashante, in Upper Guinea, Western Africa. Burned by the British in 1874.

Copenhagen (388, 388), the capital of Denmark, in the east of Zealand, but partly on the island of Amager. Though strongly fortified, it was taken in 1801 by the British fleet under Nelson; in 1807 it was bombarded, and the Danish fleet was taken to England.

Corunna (390), a sea-port of Galicia,

in the north-west of Spain. Here Sir John Moore was killed, just when he had won a victory over the French, 1809.

Creyg (138), a French village; 95 miles north-west of Paris. The scene of a famous victory over the French, gained by the Black Prince in 1346.

Crime'a (436), a peninsula on the south of Russia, stretching southward into the Black Sea. Here, from 1854 to 1856, a war was carried on between Russia on the one side, and Great Britain, France, and Turkey on the other.

Cullo'den (347), a battle-field 5 miles east of Inverness, where Prince Charles Edward was totally defeated in 1746, and the Jacobite rising thus extinguished.

Cyprus (454), an island in the east of the Mediterranean, transferred to Great Britain by Turkey in 1878.

Danube, the second largest river of Europe, rising in Baden, Germany, and flowing into the Black Sea.

Da'rien (321), an isthmus of Central America, joining the two continents of North and South America. An attempt to colonize the region with Scottish settlers in William the Third's reign ended disastrously.

Darlington, a town of Durham; 19 miles south of the county town.

Delhi (*del'-e*) (444), capital of British India; on the Jumna, a tributary of the Ganges. It was long the Mohammedan capital of India, and the seat of the Great Moguls (the Tartar emperors), who began to reign in 1525. In the Indian Mutiny of 1857-58 the town was occupied by the rebels, but was taken by Sir John Lawrence.

Denmark, a country on the other side of the North Sea. In 1397 the kingdoms of Norway and Sweden were united to Denmark. Sweden revolted in 1521; but Norway remained its dependency till 1814.

Deptford, a district of London, on the Thames. Famous for its ship-building yards.

GEOGRAPHICAL APPENDIX.

Dettingen (346), a village of Bavaria, Germany, on the Main; 16 miles south-east of Frankfort. Here George II. of England, leading his troops in person, defeated the French in 1743.

Douro (*doo'ro*), a large river separating Spain from Portugal, and flowing into the Atlantic.

Dover, Strait of, connects the English Channel with the North Sea, and separates England from France.

Drog'heda (286), a town in County Louth, Ireland; on the Boyne. The garrison here was put to the sword by Cromwell in 1649.

Drumclog' (304), a battle-field in the west of Lanarkshire; 15 miles south of Glasgow. Here the Covenanters defeated Claverhouse in 1679.

Dubba (431), a battle-field of Singh, India; near Hyderabad. Here the British won a victory over the Sikhs in 1843.

Dunbar (288), a town on the east coast of Scotland, in Haddingtonshire; nearly 30 miles east of Edinburgh. Here Cromwell defeated David Leslie and the Scots in the battle called "Dunbar Drove," 1650.

Dundalk', the chief town of County Louth; on the east coast of Ireland.

Dunkirk (298), a sea-port in the extreme north of France. It was taken from Spain in 1658, and given up to Cromwell; but in 1662 it was sold to France by Charles II. of England.

Duns (274), a town of Berwickshire. Here the army of Charles I., on its northern march, was intercepted by the Scots, and was forced to withdraw, 1639.

Egypt, a country in the north-east of Africa. In 1517 it fell before the Turks, who made it a tributary republic. In 1798 Napoleon I. invaded Egypt. War arose between Turkey and Egypt in 1832; Ibrahim Pasha defeated the Turkish armies. The strife was closed by the intervention of the European powers.

Elba (393, 396), a small island off the

coast of Tuscany, Italy; famous as the prison of Napoleon I., from May 1814 to February 1815.

Ely, Isle of (68), in Cambridgeshire, in the midst of marsh land, which now, however, is drained. Here Hereward the Saxon held out for a time against William the Conqueror.

Eth'andun (48), a hill in Wiltshire, where Alfred the Great defeated the Danes in 878.

Eupato'ria (436), a sea-port of Russia, in the west of the Crimea. Here the British and French army landed in 1854.

Evesham (*eev'zam*) (124), a town of Worcestershire; on the Avon. Here in 1265 Simon de Montfort was defeated and slain.

Falkirk (131, 347), a town of Stirlingshire; near the Forth. Here William Wallace was defeated by Edward I. in 1298; and here Prince Charles Edward routed the royal troops in 1746.

Fero'zeshah (431), a battle-field of the Punjab, India, where the Sikhs were defeated in 1845.

Finland, Gulf of, an arm of the Baltic, on which St. Petersburg, the Russian capital, is situated.

Flanders. See *Netherlands*.

Flodden (196), a village of Northumberland; 14 miles south-west of Berwick. Here James IV. of Scotland was defeated and slain, 1513.

Fontenoy (346), a village of Hainault, Belgium. Here the British, Dutch, and Austrians were defeated by the French in 1745.

Foochoo' (430), a town on the coast of China; opened to British trade in 1842.

Foreland, North (300), a headland on the east coast of Kent, off which the Dutch gained a naval victory in 1665.

Foth'eringay (235), a village of Northamptonshire. Mary Queen of Scots was tried at the castle here; it was destroyed by her son James I. after his accession to the English throne.

Foyle, a river of the north of Ireland, on which Londonderry is situated.
France (the land of the Franks).

After the founding of the Frankish kingdom, a number of independent duchies grew up around it, which were gradually absorbed by the central power. Chief of these were Aquitaine, Burgundy, and Brittany. The English held a large part of France for nearly four centuries (1066-1451). Napoleon I. extended her frontiers greatly, but they have since been brought back to their natural limits.

Frankfort, a town of Hesse-Nassau, Germany; on the Main. It was the seat of the old German Diet or Parliament.

Gan'ges, the sacred river of India, flowing through the northern part of the country.

Gaunt. See *Ghent*.

Gene'va, a city of Switzerland; on the Rhône, at its outlet from the Lake of Geneva.

Genoa, a sea-port of Northern Italy; on the Mediterranean. It became a republic about 1000, and was a great rival of Venice. Genoa was the birth-place of Columbus.

Ghent, the capital of East Flanders, in Belgium; on the Scheldt. Noted as the birth-place of the Emperor Charles V. in 1500.

Gibral'tar (326, 369), a promontory in the southern extremity of Spain. It was taken from Spain by the British in 1704. The French and Spaniards besieged it unsuccessfully from 1779 till 1782.

Glastonbury, a town of Somersetshire; near Bath.

Glencoe' (318), a valley in the north-east of Argyleshire. The scene of the massacre of many of the clan Macdonald in 1692.

Gooj'erat (432), a town in the Punjab, British India. A battle here, in which the Sikhs were routed by the British, led to the annexation of the Punjab, 1849.

Grampian Mountains (28), a chain of mountains running across Scotland,

at the foot of which, somewhere in Perthshire, was fought the Battle of Mons Grampius.

Greece (409). Once Greece was one of the most celebrated countries in the world; in the fourth and fifth centuries B.C. it surpassed all others in arts and learning. It was conquered by the Turks about 1456, and was subject to them for nearly four centuries. The struggle for freedom began in 1820. Greece was declared independent in 1829, and became a kingdom in 1832.

Guinea, a division of Western Africa, of which little is known except the coast.

Guinegate (*geen'-gate*) (196), a battle-field in the north of France, near Terouenne; 12 miles east of Boulogne. Here Henry VIII. gained the "Battle of Spurs," 1513.

Halidon Hill (130), about a mile north-west of Berwick. Here, in 1333, a Scottish army was completely defeated by the English.

Halifax, a town of Yorkshire; 7 miles south-west of Bradford.

Halifax, the capital of Nova Scotia, Canada.

Hampton (197), a village on the Thames; 15 miles above London. Near it is Hampton Court palace, which was built by Cardinal Wolsey, and presented by him to Henry VIII. in 1525.

Harfleur' (160), a town of France, on the Seine; near the English Channel. Taken by Henry V.

Hastings (62), a town on the coast of Sussex. Near it was fought the Battle of Senlac Hill (which see).

Hedgeley Moor (177), in Northumberland; 8 miles west of Alnwick. A battle-field of the War of the Roses, 1464.

Hexham (177), a town of Northumberland, on the Tyne; 20 miles west of Newcastle. A battle-field of the War of the Roses, 1464.

Hohenlin'den (388), a village of Bavaria, Germany; 20 miles east of Munich. The scene of a battle in

- 1800, between the French under Moreau and the Austrians.
- Holland.** See *Netherlands*.
- Homildon Hill** (153), near Wooler, in Northumberland; where a victory was won over the Scots by Earl Percy in 1402.
- Hong-kong'** (430), an island east of the entrance to the Canton river. It is 8 miles long, and from 2 to 6 broad. Taken by Great Britain in 1842.
- Hougoumont** (*hoo'-goo-mong*) (397), a mansion-house to the south-west of Waterloo, Belgium. A centre of attack in the great battle of June 18, 1815.
- Hudson**, a river of North America, flowing into the Atlantic at New York.
- Hudson Bay Territory** (330), a province of the Dominion of Canada, east of British Columbia. Ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht, 1713. Now called *North-west Territories*.
- Hull** (277), an important seaport in Yorkshire; on the Humber. The governor of the town refused admittance to Charles I. in 1642; and thus the Civil War began.
- Hungary.** See *Austria*.
- Hyderabad**, the capital of Sindh, India; on the east bank of the Indus.
- Indus**, a large river of Asia, rising in Tibet, and flowing into the Arabian Sea.
- Ingo'go** (450), a river in Natal, South Africa. Near it is the scene of a British defeat in 1880.
- Inkermann** (440), a little to the east of Sebastopol, in the Crimea, Russia. The scene of a Russian defeat in the Crimean War, November 5, 1854.
- Inverness'**, the county-town of Inverness-shire, and capital of the Highlands; at the mouth of the Ness.
- Iona** (42), an island off the west coast of Scotland. The seat of a monastery of Irish monks who settled here in 563.
- Ipswich** (196), the county-town of Suffolk. Birth-place of Cardinal Wolsey.
- Jamaica** (293), the chief of the British West India Islands. It was discovered by Columbus in 1494, and was taken from the Spaniards in 1655.
- Jamestown** (263), in Virginia, United States; where an English colony landed in 1607.
- Jarrow** (40), a town of Durham; on the Tyne. In the monastery here the Venerable Bede spent his life.
- Jelalabad'** (427), a town of Afghanistan; near the Cabul river. Occupied by the British in the first Afghan War (1839-42).
- Jena** (*ya'na*) (387), a town of Saxe-Weimar, Germany; 50 miles southwest of Leipzig. Here Napoleon defeated the Prussians in 1806.
- Jerusalem** (78), the chief city of Palestine; built upon four hills. Besieged by the Romans, 70 A.D.; surrendered to the Caliph Omar, 637; taken by the Crusaders, 1099; taken by the Turks, 1244; captured by Mamelukes, 1382; retaken by the Turks, 1517.
- Jumina**, a river of India, rising in the Himalaya, and joining the Ganges at Allahabad.
- Jutland** (36), the most northerly province of Denmark. From this part came the Jutes, who settled in Kent.
- Kandahar'** (427), a fortified city of Afghanistan; south-west of Cabul. Taken by the British in 1839.
- Kars** (443), a fortified city of Armenia, Asia; 100 miles inland from the south-eastern shore of the Black Sea. The town now belongs to Russia. It was invested by a British army in 1856.
- Kenilworth**, a town and castle of Warwickshire; 4 miles north of Warwick.
- Khartoum'** (457), the capital of Nubia, Africa; at the junction of the White Nile and the Blue Nile. Occupied by General Gordon, who was killed there in 1885.
- Killiecrankie** (317), a mountain pass in Perthshire, through which flows the river Garry. Here, in 1689, Viscount Dundee was slain just when he

had gained a victory over the royal troops.

Kooloon' (448), a district of China, opposite to Canton. Ceded to the British in 1861.

Korti, on the Nile, in Africa; about 120 miles above Dongola.

Kron'stadt (336), a fortress on an island of Russia, in the Gulf of Finland; 21 miles west of St. Petersburg. It is the chief naval station of the Baltic. In 1854 Sir Charles John Napier failed in an attempt to take it.

Kyber Pass, the chief pass from India into Afghanistan.

Labrador', a peninsula of British North America; north-west of Newfoundland.

La Haye Sainte (*la hay saingt*) (397), a farm-house south of the village of Waterloo, Belgium, around which much hard fighting took place in the great battle of June 18, 1815.

La Hogue (*la hog*) (319), on the eastern side of Cotentin peninsula, Northern France, off which the fleet of Louis XIV. was defeated by Russell, 1692.

Lahore' (432), the capital of the Punjab, India; near the Ravee. Here a treaty was made with the Sikhs in 1846.

Laing's Neck (456), a narrow mountain pass in Natal, South Africa. Scene of a British defeat in 1880.

La Rochelle (*la ro-shel*) (270), a port of Western France. As a Protestant stronghold it underwent a memorable siege in 1628, during which the Duke of Buckingham made an unsuccessful attempt to throw help into the city.

La Vendée (376), a department of Western France, on the Bay of Biscay, remarkable for its royalist spirit during the great French Revolution.

Leipzig (393), the second city of Saxony, Germany, in a plain watered by the Pleisse; 60 miles north-west of Dresden. Famous for the defeat of Napoleon by the Allies in 1813.

Leith (152), the sea-port of Edinburgh;

on the Firth of Forth. Burned by Henry IV. in 1402.

Leven, Loch (234), a lake in Kinrossshire. On a small island in the lake is situated a castle where Mary, Queen of Scots, was for some time a prisoner.

Lew'es (123), a town of Sussex; about 9 miles north-east of Brighton. In a battle here Henry III. was defeated and made prisoner by Montfort, 1264.

Lex'ington (365), a town of Massachusetts, United States; 11 miles north-west of Boston. Here a skirmish took place at the opening of the American War, 1775.

Ligny (*leen'-ye*) (306), a village of Belgium; 18 miles south-east of Waterloo. Here the Prussians under Blücher were driven back by Napoleon, June 16, 1815.

Lim'erick (318), a town in the west of Ireland; on the Shannon. Here James II. met with his final reverse in 1691, and was forced to sign a treaty.

Lindisfarne or **Holy Island** (39), off the coast of Northumberland. Here one of the earliest monasteries in England was established.

Lisbon, the capital of Portugal, on the Tagus. Here a terrible earthquake occurred in 1755.

Lochiel (*loch-eel*), a district in the north of Argyleshire.

Londonderry (317), a town in the north of Ireland; on the Foyle. Famous for its great siege in 1689.

Luck'now (446), a town in British India; on the Goomtee, a tributary of the Ganges. Bravely relieved by Havelock and Outram in 1857.

Lutterworth (149), a parish of Leicestershire, as rector of which John Wyclif spent the latter part of his life.

Lyme (308), a sea-port of Dorsetshire, where the Duke of Monmouth landed in 1685.

Madras', an important town in the south-east of British India.

Madrid (390), the capital of Spain, on the Manzanares, a tributary of the

Tagus. Napoleon entered the city in triumph in 1808.

Magdala (451), a fortress of Abyssinia, destroyed by the British in 1868.

Magus Moor (304), in Fifeshire; near St. Andrews. Here Archbishop Sharp was slain in 1679.

Majuba Hill (456), a battle-field in Natal, South Africa. Scene of a British defeat, 1880.

Malplaquet (*mal-pla-kay'*) (326), a town of Nord, France; close to the Belgian frontier. Noted for a victory gained here by Marlborough in 1709.

Malta, an island in the Mediterranean; due south of Sicily. Chief town, Valletta. It is one of Great Britain's most important ocean fortresses.

Mantes (*mangt'*) (74), a town of France, on the Seine; near Paris. It was burned by William the Conqueror.

Marengo (382), an Italian village; 2 miles south-east of Alessandria, in Piedmont. Famous for the victory of Napoleon over the Austrians in 1800.

Market-Bosworth. See *Bosworth*.

Marston Moor (279), about 5 miles west of York. Here during the Civil War Charles I. suffered a severe defeat, 1644.

Masai', a region of Western Africa; west of Zanzibar.

Mayo, a large county in the west of Ireland.

Mediterranean Sea, a large inland sea between Europe and Africa.

Meean'ee (431), a village of Sindh, India; 5 miles north of Hyderabad. Here Sir Charles James Napier defeated the Ameer of Sindh in 1843.

Meerut' (444), a town of British India; 35 miles north-east of Delhi. Here the Indian Mutiny of 1857 began.

Metam'meh (458), a battle-field in Nubia, North Africa. Here the British defeated the Arabs in the Egyptian War (1882-85).

Minden (360), a town of Westphalia, Germany, on the Weser; 35 miles south-west of Hanover. Noted for the defeat of the French by Ferdinand of Brunswick, 1759.

Minor'ca (327, 356), one of the Balearic

Isles, off the east coast of Spain. Transferred to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713), but afterwards taken by the French and restored to Spain.

Mississip'i, a river of the United States, 3,200 miles in length; flowing south into the Gulf of Mexico. It takes its rise in Minnesota State.

Moidart (346), a district in the extreme south-west of Inverness-shire. Here Prince Charles Edward landed in 1745.

Mons Grampius. See *Grampian Mountains*.

Montreal', a city in the province of Quebec, Canada; at the junction of the Ottawa with the St. Lawrence.

Montrose', a town on the coast of Forfarshire.

Mood'kee (431), a village 65 miles south-east of Lahore, India. In a battle here the Sikhs were defeated, 1845.

Mortimer's Cross (174), a battle-field of the War of the Roses, in the north of Herefordshire; where the Lancastrians were routed, 1461.

Moscow (393), the old capital and the holy city of Russia, on the Moskwa, a tributary of the Volga; 390 miles south-east of St. Petersburg. In 1812 the burning of the city drove Napoleon to undertake his terrible winter retreat.

Murray, the principal river of Australia.

Mysore, a district in the south of India, of which Seringapatam was capital.

Naples (389), on the beautiful Bay of Naples; the largest city of modern Italy. Long under rule of the Spaniards, whose tyranny kindled a rebellion in 1647. Joseph Bonaparte was made King of Naples in 1806; succeeded by Murat in 1808.

Naseby (280), a village of Northamptonshire, where Charles I. was finally defeated, 1645.

Natal', one of the provinces of the Union of South Africa.

Navarino (409), on the south-west

coast of the Morea, in Greece. The scene of a great naval battle in 1827, in which the Turkish fleet was destroyed.

Nesbit Moor (153), in Berwickshire; where the Scots were defeated by Percy, 1402.

Netherlands, situated between the North Sea and Germany. At the end of the fourteenth century, the county of Flanders and the duchy of Brabant occupied the land we now call Belgium; Holland was little more than a name on the map of Europe. The land then fell under the Dukes of Burgundy, and afterwards under the House of Austria. Charles V. ruled the Netherlands; but the northern provinces, revolting from his son Philip II., formed the Dutch Republic. In 1795 the Netherlands was joined to the French Republic. A king of the Netherlands was proclaimed in 1815; in 1830 the Belgians revolted, and have since had a king of their own.

Nevil's Cross (140), about a mile from Durham. A stone cross marks the site of the victory gained here by the English over David II. of Scotland, 1346.

Newark (280), a town of Nottinghamshire; 16 miles north of Lincoln. Here Charles I. gave himself up to the Scottish army, 1646.

Newburn (275), a battlefield in Northumberland, on the Tyne; near Newcastle. Here an army of Charles I. was defeated by General Alexander Leslie, 1630.

Newbury (279), a town of Berkshire; 17 miles west of Reading. The scene of two battles of the Civil War, fought in 1643 and 1644.

Newcastle (279), the chief town of Northumberland; 10 miles from the mouth of the Tyne. Taken by the Parliamentary army in the Civil War.

Newfoundland (330), a large island at the entrance to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, North America. Taken possession of by the British in 1583. The sovereignty of Britain was ac-

knowledged in the Treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. A separate colonial legislature was instituted in 1832.

New Guinea (15), a large island to the north of Australia, part of which belongs to Britain.

Newmarket, a town of Cambridgeshire; 13 miles north-east of Cambridge. Noted for its horse-races.

New Orleans (395), a town of North America, on the Mississippi, 94 miles from its mouth; the chief city in the south-western States of the Union. An attack on the town by the British in 1814 was repulsed by the Americans.

Newport, a town of Monmouthshire; 12 miles from Cardiff.

New South Wales (14), one of the divisions of Australia. This name was given to it by Captain Cook, who thought that it was like the South Wales in Britain.

New York, the capital of the United States; at the mouth of the Hudson. It was so named in honour of the Duke of York, afterwards James II.

New Zealand (14), a British colony in Australasia; 1,200 miles south-east of Australia. Taken over by the British in 1840.

Niemen, a river forming part of the boundary between Russia and Poland. Its mouth is in Prussia.

Nile, a river of Northern Africa. It rises in the equatorial region, flows through Nubia and Upper Egypt, and falls into the Mediterranean.

Ningpo (430), a town on the coast of China; opened to British trade in 1842.

Nore, The (377), a roadstead (place for ships) on the Thames, opposite to Sheerness. A mutiny in the Royal Navy occurred here in 1797.

Nor'ham (130), a village of Northumberland, on the Tweed; 8 miles southwest of Berwick. In the castle here Edward I. met the claimants to the throne of Scotland, 1290.

Normandy (57, 112). In 911 Charles the Simple, the French King, yielded up to the Norsemen a large tract in the north of France, which took its

name from them,—Northman-dy, or Normandy. After the conquest of England by Duke William, it became a province of that country, until it was lost by King John in 1204.

Northallerton (58), a small town in North Yorkshire. Here the "Battle of the Standard" was fought in 1138 between the English and David I. of Scotland, the latter being defeated.

Northampton (174), the county town of Northamptonshire; 60 miles northwest of London. Here a battle of the War of the Roses was fought, 1460.

North Carolina. See *Carolina*.

North Foreland. See *Foreland*.

Norway (North Realm), a country on the other side of the North Sea. At first it was the chief power in the Scandinavian peninsula. Along with Sweden it was joined to Denmark in 1397. After the Swedish revolt of 1521, it continued under Danish rule, till in 1814 it was united to Sweden.

Norwich (*nor'-itch*) (223), the county town of Norfolk. An important seat of woollen manufactures.

Nottingham (278), the county town of Nottinghamshire; 15 miles south-east of Derby. Here Charles I. raised his standard in the Civil War, 1642.

Nova Scotia (330), a peninsula south of the Gulf of St. Lawrence, North America. Ceded to Britain by the Treaty of Utrecht in 1713.

Odessa, a sea-port of Southern Russia; on the Black Sea.

Ohi'o, a tributary of the Mississippi river, in North America.

Oporto, a sea-port of Portugal, on the Douro; the second city of the kingdom. Noted for a strong red wine, called from its *port*.

Orange, a small town in the south-east of France.—The largest river of South Africa.

Orange Free State, one of the provinces of the Union of South Africa, was annexed by Britain in 1900.

Orkney Isles, lying to the north-east of Scotland; about 10 miles from the mainland.

Orleans (166), a French city, at the

most northerly bend of the Loire. The town was besieged by the English in 1428, but was relieved by Joan of Arc, thence called the "Maid of Orleans."

Ottawa, a town of Canada, on the river Ottawa, a branch of the St. Lawrence.

Otterburn (146), a village of Northumberland; famous for the battle which was fought here, in 1388, between the Douglasses and the Percys.

Oudenarde' (326), a village of Belgium, on the Scheldt; 33 miles west of Brussels. Famed as the scene of Marlborough's victory over the French marshal, Vendôme, in 1708.

Palestine or the **Holy Land**, a country of Asia; in the east of the Mediterranean. It is now under the rule of Turkey.

Panama. See *Darien*.

Paris, the capital of France, on the Seine, 110 miles from its mouth. Made the capital of the Frankish dominions, 510; chief scene of Revolution of 1789-95. The Germans invested the town for four months, 1870-71.

Parma, an old province of Northern Italy.

Pekin' (448), the capital of China; on the Pei-ho river. It was occupied by the British and French in 1860.

Perth, the county town of Perthshire; on the Tay.

Peterborough, a town of Northamptonshire, on the Nen; about 40 miles north-east of Northampton.

Peterhead, a sea-port on the coast of Aberdeenshire.

Pevensey (62), a village of Sussex, where, in 1066, William Duke of Normandy landed with his army.

Philadelphia (367), the capital of Pennsylvania, and the second city of the United States. Here the American Declaration of Independence was drawn up in 1776.

Philiphaugh (280), a plain in Selkirkshire, where the Marquis of Montrose was defeated by General David Leslie, 1645.

Pinkie (210), a battle-field near Musselburgh, Edinburghshire, where the Scots were defeated by the English under the Duke of Somerset, 1547.

Plas'sey (14, 357), a village 90 miles north of Calcutta, in Bengal, India. Here the Sujah-ad-Dowlah was defeated by Clive, who thus brought the country under British control, 1757.

Plymouth, a sea-port of Devonshire; on the English Channel.

Plymouth (264), a sea-port of Massachusetts, United States. Noted as the landing-place of the "Pilgrim Fathers," December 22, 1620.

Poictiers (*p'wa'-tyea*) (141), a town in the west of France; 58 miles south-west of Tours. Here the Black Prince won a great victory over the French, 1356.

Pondicherry (*pon-de-sha-re*), the capital of the French settlements in India; about 100 miles south-west of Madras.

Pontefract (*pom'-fret*) (151), a town of Yorkshire; 21 miles south-west of York. In the castle here Richard II. was murdered in 1400.

Portland (289), a peninsula in the south of Devonshire, off which, in 1653, Admiral Blake inflicted a defeat on the Dutch fleet.

Porto Bello, a sea-port of Colombia, South America.

Porto Rico (*por'-to ree'-ko*), an island of the Greater Antilles, West Indies.

Portsmouth, an important town of Hampshire.

Portugal, a country in the west of the Iberian or Spanish peninsula. It was conquered by the West Goths in the sixth century, and by the Moors in 712. On the defeat of the Moors, Count Henry, a Burgundian prince, founded in 1139 the monarchy of Portugal.

Preston (282, 337), a town of Lancashire; on the Ribble. Here Cromwell defeated the Scots under the Duke of Hamilton, 1648; and here a rising of the English Jacobites was suppressed, 1715.

Prestonpans (346), a town 8½ miles

east of Edinburgh; on the Firth of Forth. Here Prince Charles Edward defeated the royal troops under Sir John Cope, 1745.

Provence, an old province of France, on the Mediterranean coast, between the mouth of the Rhône and the Alps.

Pun'jab (432)—meaning "the five waters"—a province in the north-west of India, watered by the Indus and its tributaries, the Jhelum, the Chenab, the Ravee, and the Sutlej. Annexed to the British Empire in 1849.

Pyrenees, a range of mountains forming the boundary between France and Spain.

Quatre Bras (*katr brah'*) (396), a Belgian village, 10 miles south of Waterloo. Here Marshal Ney made an unsuccessful attack on a body of British troops, June 18, 1815. It gets its name—*four arms*—from its being the point where two roads cross each other.

Quebec (14, 358), capital of the province of Quebec, in the Dominion of Canada; on the St. Lawrence. Once the capital of the French Canadian possessions. Taken by the British under General Wolfe, in 1759.

Raleigh (231), the capital of North Carolina state, in North America. Named in honour of Sir Walter Raleigh.

Ramilles (*ra-meel'-ye* or *ram'-il-ees*) (326), a village of Belgium; 28 miles south-east of Brussels. Noted for Marlborough's victory over the French marshal, Villeroi, in 1706.

Rangoon' (408), a town of Burma, in the Indo-Chinese Peninsula. Taken by Great Britain in 1824.

Ravenspur (179), in Yorkshire, at the mouth of the Humber. Here Edward IV. landed in 1471.

Red Sea, an arm of the Indian Ocean; separating Africa from Arabia.

Rheims (*reems*) (163), a town of Northern France; 90 miles north-east of Paris. Charles VII. was crowned here by Joan of Arc, in 1429.

- Rhine**, an important river of Europe; separating Switzerland from Germany, and flowing into the North Sea.
- Richmond**, a town of Surrey; 11 miles south-west of London.
- Rochester**, a town of Kent; 26 miles north-west of Canterbury.
- Rome**, the capital of Italy, on the Tiber. Now famous for its ruins and for its art galleries. The chief modern buildings are St. Peter's and the Vatican.
- Rorke's Drift** (455), a mission station in Zululand, South Africa. Here a small British force beat back a large Zulu army in 1879.
- Rouen** (*rwan*) (74, 170), a town of France, on the Seine. It was the capital of the old province of Normandy. Here William the Conqueror died; and here Joan of Arc was burned by the English in 1431.
- Runnymede** (116), a meadow on the Thames, near Windsor. Here King John was forced by the barons to sign Magna Carta, 1215.
- Rye House** (306), in Hertfordshire; north of London. It gave its name to a plot formed in 1683, to make the Duke of Monmouth heir to the English throne.
- Ryswick** (*rise-wik*) (320), a town of West Holland; 2 miles south-east of the Hague. Here the French made a treaty with William III. in 1697.
- Saha/ra**, a huge desert of Northern Africa; the largest in the world.
- St. Albans** (34, 174), a town of Hertfordshire; 19 miles north-west of London. Named from *Alban*, the first British Christian martyr. The scene of two battles in the War of the Roses, 1455 and 1461.
- St. Andrews**, an ancient town of Fife-shire, Scotland. It has a university and a ruined cathedral.
- St. Germain** (312), a town and palace of France, near the Seine; 9 miles north-west of Paris. Here James II., an exile, died in 1701.
- St. Helena** (*e-lay'-na*) (399), a rocky island in the South Atlantic, belong-
- ing to Great Britain. Famous as the prison of Napoleon from 1815 till his death in 1821.
- St. Lawrence**, a large river of North America, flowing into the Atlantic.
- St. Petersburg**, the capital of Russia, on the Neva; founded by Peter the Great.
- St. Vincent** (378), a cape in the south-western extremity of Portugal, where the combined French and Spanish fleets were defeated by the British in 1797.
- Salaman'ca** (393), a town of Spain, 110 miles north-west of Madrid. Here the French were defeated by Wellington in 1812.
- Salis/bury**, the chief town of Wiltshire. To the north lies the Salisbury Plain.
- Santa Domin'go** (231), one of the Greater Antilles, north of South America. Discovered and colonized by Columbus in 1492. It is now divided into two republican states.
- Saratoga** (363), a town of New York state, North America, on the Hudson; 32 miles north of Albany. Here the British general, Burgoyne, was forced by the Americans to surrender, 1777.
- Sardinia**, a large island of Italy, in the Mediterranean. This kingdom formed the basis of the present kingdom of Italy.
- Sarum, Old** (414), near Salisbury, in Wiltshire. One of the "pocket" boroughs disfranchised in 1832.
- Saxe-Meiningen**, a duchy of Germany, between Gotha and Coburg.
- Scone** (*scoon*), near Perth. The site of an ancient abbey and palace, where the Scottish kings were crowned.
- Sedgemoor** (308), a battle-field of Somersetshire, where Monmouth was defeated by the royal army, 1685.
- Seine** (*sain*), an important river of France, flowing into the English Channel; on it Paris is situated.
- Senlac Hill** (62), 9 miles from Hastings, Sussex. Here the battle was fought between Harold II. and William of Normandy which secured the crown of England to the latter, 1066.

Seringapatam (373), the chief town of Mysore, India. Stormed by Sir David Baird, 1799.

Shanghai (430), a town on the coast of China. Opened to British trade in 1842.

Sheerness (300), a sea-port and naval station on the island of Sheppey, in Kent. Attacked by the Dutch fleet in 1667.

Sheriffmuir (336), a battle-field in the south of Perthshire; 8 miles north-east of Stirling. Here an indecisive encounter took place between the Jacobites and the royal troops in 1715.

Shrewsbury (154), the county town of Shropshire; on the Severn. Here a rising took place against Henry IV., and Hotspur was slain in the battle, 1403.

Sier'ra Leo'ne, a settlement in the west of Africa.

Silesia, a Prussian province, divided by the Oder. Its capital is Breslau. It was seized by Frederick the Great in 1742, having formerly belonged to Austria.

Sindh (431), a province of India, in the north-west; near the mouth of the Indus. Conquered by Great Britain in 1843.

Sluys (*sloo's*) (138), a town of the Netherlands; at the mouth of the Scheldt. Here Edward III. won a naval victory over the French in 1346.

Smithfield, a part of London, where formerly many martyrs suffered.

Sobra'on (432), a village of the Punjab, India, where a final victory was gained over the Sikhs, 1846.

Soudan (*soo-dan'*), a wide and thickly-peopled region in Africa, south of the Sahara, or Great Desert.

Spithead (377), a roadstead (place for ships) opposite to Portsmouth, between Portsea Island and the Isle of Wight. A mutiny in the Royal Navy occurred here in 1797.

Stamford Bridge (61), a battle-field of Yorkshire; on the Derwent. Here a Norwegian army was repulsed by Harold II., 1066.

Stirling, a town on the river Forth, between the Highlands and the Lowlands of Scotland.

Stockton, a town of Durham, on the Tees.

Stoke (190), a village of Nottinghamshire, near Newark. Here Simnel and the Earl of Lincoln were defeated in 1457.

Stratford-on-Avon (242), a town of Warwickshire, on the Avon. Here Shakespeare was born in 1564.

Suakim, a seaport of Nubia, Africa, in the Egyptian Dominion. It is situated on an island in the Red Sea.

Suez, a town of Egypt, on the Red Sea. The Suez Canal joins the Red Sea to the Mediterranean.

Surtej, one of the tributaries of the Indus river, in the Punjab, India.

Sydney (14), capital of the colony of New South Wales, Australia. First visited by Europeans 1788.

Syria, a country on the east coast of the Mediterranean; in the possession of Turkey.

Tagus, the largest river of Spain, flowing through Portugal, and falling into the Atlantic below Lisbon.

Talavera (392), a town of Spain, on the Tagus; about 60 miles south-west of Madrid. Here Wellesley defeated the French in 1809.

Tamasi (456), a battle-field of the Soudan, Africa. A battle was won here by the British in the Egyptian War (1882-85).

Taunton (308), a town of Somersetshire, on the Tone. Here Monmouth proclaimed himself king, and here, after the rebellion, Colonel Kirke punished his prisoners with death.

Tchernay'a (441), a river in the Crimea, Russia, flowing into the harbour of Sebastopol. Here the Russians were defeated by the allies in 1855.

Teb (456), a battle-field of the Soudan, Africa. A battle was won here by the British in the Egyptian War (1882-85).

Tel-el-Kebir (456), a battle-field of Egypt 26 miles west of Ismailia; on

the Suez Canal. The scene of a British victory in 1882.

Tenchebriai (*tensh'-bray*) (85), a battle-field in Normandy, where Duke Robert was defeated by his brother, Henry I., 1106.

Tewkesbury (180), a town of Gloucestershire, on the Avon; 10 miles north-east of Gloucester. Here a great battle of the War of the Roses was fought, 1471.

Texel (289), an island off the coast of Holland, in an action off which Van Tromp was killed, 1653.

Tilbury (237), a fort on the left bank of the Thames; about 20 miles below London. Here Queen Elizabeth reviewed her troops before the encounter with the Spanish Armada, 1588.

Till, a river of Northumberland, flowing into the Tweed.

Tilsit (388), a town of East Prussia, on the Niemen. Here Napoleon I. and Czar Alexander I. concluded peace in 1807.

Tokar', south of Suakin, in Nubia, Africa.

Torbay (311), a bay on the coast of Devonshire, where William of Orange landed in 1688.

Torres Vedras (392), a village 27 miles north-west of Lisbon, Portugal, where Wellington threw up lines of defence in 1810.

Toulon (376), a strong sea-port of France, on the Mediterranean. At its siege by the army of the Republic in 1793, Napoleon Bonaparte first came into public notice.

Toulouse (393), a French city, on the Garonne. It was the capital of the old province of Languedoc. Here the last battle of the Peninsular War was fought in 1814.

Towton (176), a town of Yorkshire, near Tadcaster. The scene of a Lancastrian defeat in the War of the Roses, 1461.

Trafalgar' (384), a cape in the southwest of Spain, 30 miles from Cadiz. Here, in a naval battle with the fleets of France and Spain, Nelson fell, 1805.

Transvaal' (455), one of the provinces of the Union of South Africa, was founded by Dutch Boers (farmers) in 1848. Declared independent, 1852; annexed by Britain, 1877. In 1880, after a war with Britain, it became practically independent, but was again annexed by Britain in 1900.

Troyes (*tr'wah*) (162), a town of France, on the Seine, 90 miles south-east of Paris. A treaty drawn up here in 1420 made Henry V. heir to the throne of France.

Tyburn, in the west of London. It was at one time the chief place for the execution of criminals.

Ulm (*oolm*) (386), a town of Württemberg, Germany, on the Danube; 50 miles south-east of Stuttgart. Here an Austrian army surrendered to the French in 1805.

Ulun'di (*oo-loon'-de*) (455), a battle-field in Zululand, south-eastern Africa. Here the Zulus were defeated by the British, 1879.

United States of America (367).—They consist of one Federal District and 48 States. Thirteen of the States were originally British colonies. They declared their independence in 1776, and it was acknowledged by Great Britain in 1783.

Utrecht (*oo-trekt*) (330), a Dutch city, on the Old Rhine; 23 miles south-east of Amsterdam. Here the treaty of 1713 was concluded, ending the War of the Spanish Succession.

Vaal, a large tributary of the Orange river, in South Africa.

Varna, a sea-port of Bulgaria, on the Black Sea.

Venice, a city of Italy, on eighty islands at the head of the Adriatic.

Versailles (*ver-sâl'* or *ver-sye'*) (369), a town of France, near Paris. Famous for its magnificent palace. Here a treaty was arranged in 1783, by which the independence of the American colonies was acknowledged.

Vienna, the capital of Austria, on the Danube. Occupied twice by Na-

poleon. From its central position it may be called "the diplomatic capital of Europe."

Vimiera (*vim-e-ay'-ra*) (389), a small town of Portugal, 30 miles north-west of Lisbon, where the French were defeated in 1808 by Wellesley.

Vinegar Hill (378), near Enniscorthy; north-west of Wexford. Here the United Irishmen were defeated in 1798.

Virginia (229, 352), the first British settlement in North America. It was taken possession of in 1584, and was named after the *virgin* queen, Elizabeth.

Vitoria (393), the capital of Alava, North Spain; where, in 1813, the decisive battle of the Peninsular War was fought.

Wakefield (174), a town of Yorkshire; 9 miles south of Leeds. A battle-field of the War of the Roses, 1460.

Wallingford (88), a town of Berkshire, on the Thames. A treaty signed here in 1152 made Maud's son, Henry, heir to the English throne.

Wallsend (30), a place in Northumberland, near Newcastle. So called from its being at the *end* of Hadrian's *Wall*.

Wantage (49), a town of Berkshire. Alfred the Great was born here in 849.

Washington, capital of the United States of America, in Columbia, on the Potomac. Named in honour of George Washington. The President's residence and the government buildings are here.

Waterloo (397), a town of Belgium; 9 miles south-east of Brussels, near the Forest of Soignies. The scene of Napoleon's utter defeat, by Wellington, June 18, 1815.

Wavre (*var'-r*), a town of South Brabant, Belgium; 15 miles south-east of Brussels.

Wearmouth, a parish of Durham; near Sunderland.

Wedmore (48), in Somersetshire, where Alfred the Great made peace with the Danes.

Wexford, the chief town of County Wexford, Ireland.

Whitby, a seaport on the coast of Yorkshire.

Winchester (98), the chief town of Hampshire. Until the reign of Henry II. it was the capital of England.

Windsor (71), a town of Berkshire, on the Thames; 23 miles from London. Here William the Conqueror built a castle, which was afterwards used as a royal dwelling.

Woolwich (*wool'-itch*), a town of Kent, on the Thames.

Worcester (*woos'-ter*) (288), the chief town of Worcestershire, in the west of England; on the Severn. Here Cromwell signally defeated the army of Charles II. in 1651.

Yorktown (369), a town of Virginia, United States; 50 miles south-east of Richmond. Here the American War was brought to a close by the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, 1781.

Zambe'si, a large river of South Africa, flowing into the Mozambique Channel.

Zanzibar, an island in the Indian Ocean, off the east coast of Africa.

Zell, a town of Hanover, Germany; on the Aller.

Zu'l Land (455), in the south-east of Africa, is now a part of the province of Natal.

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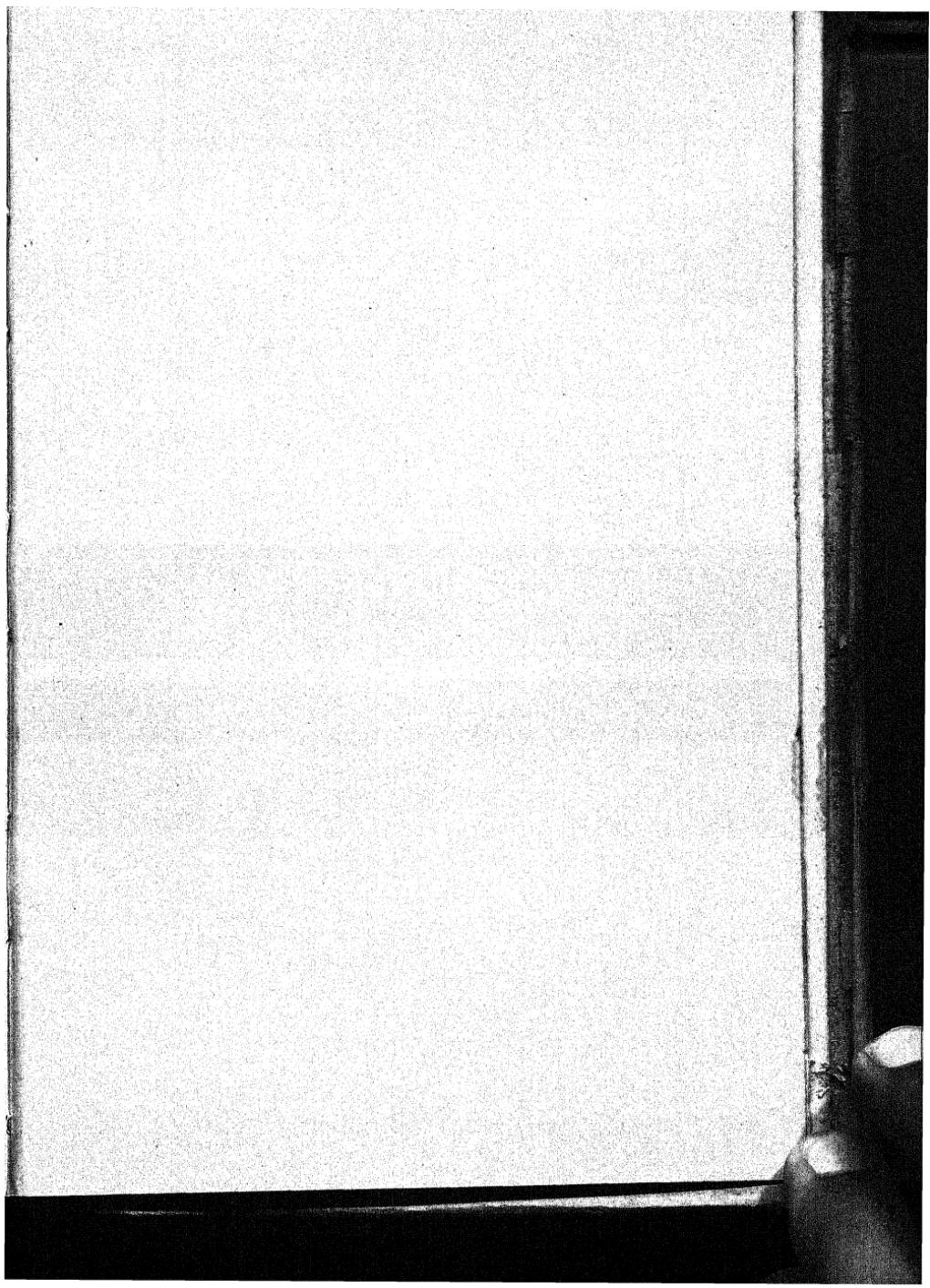
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